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Adolphus

POLYGRAPH

THE BRITISH

A HISTORY OF

THE DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POLICY
OF THE CROWN

FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE
REIGN OF HENRY II. TO THE
DEATH OF GEORGE III.

BY JOHN ADOLPHUS, ESQ.

ESQ.

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WITH A HISTORY OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE III. FROM THE
DEATH OF GEORGE II. TO THE DEATH OF 1760.

ESQ.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

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THE
POLITICAL STATE
OF
THE BRITISH EMPIRE;

CONTAINING
A GENERAL VIEW
OF
THE DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POSSESSIONS
OF THE CROWN;

THE LAWS, COMMERCE, REVENUES, OFFICES,
AND OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS,
CIVIL AND MILITARY.

By JOHN ADOLPHUS, Esq.

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AUTHOR OF "THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, FROM THE ACCESSION OF
KING GEORGE III. TO THE PEACE OF 1783."

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POLITICAL STATE
OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE.

SECOND GENERAL DIVISION.

SCOTLAND.

THE division of Great Britain known by the name of Scotland is now to be considered. It is not intended to pursue an inquiry into all the circumstances of the political condition of this country with the minuteness nor to the extent employed in former pages, but to give a general, though not indistinct, view of the several objects most important to be known. In the first place the epochs of history will be briefly noticed; the several counties will then be described, more at length than those of England have been, because under the head of each county will be contained an account of the most important public institutions it contains; the metropolis, the trade, revenues, and some other particulars will afterward be separately treated on.

HISTORY. On this subject it has been thought fit to rely on Mr. George Chalmers, and to follow the arrangement he has adopted in his excellent work, called *Caledonia*.

The original impulse, which had been given to mankind, peopled the British islands, during the most early times. The stone monuments, which still appear to inquisitive eyes, in Britain and Ireland, evince that the first settlement of those islands must have been accomplished during the pristine ages of the post-diluvian world, while only one race of men existed in Europe, and while a second impulse had not yet induced various people to quit their original settlements in Asia.

As the current of colonization, during those times, constantly flowed from the east to the west; as the isles were necessarily colonized from their neighbouring continents; Britain must undoubtedly have been settled from adjacent Gaul, by her Celtic people. The religion and manners of the two countries remained the same during ten centuries: their primitive language has continued the same in several districts to the present day. Britain indeed was a mirror of Gaul at the recent periods, when the Romans invaded the British shores. The several tribes were united by a polity which allowed but slight ties: they practised the same religious customs: they were actuated by the same personal habits: they spoke a common language: but we see nothing of a body politic, which fastened the disunited clans by the kindred bonds of civil society. Neither does there appear, within the narrow outline of their affairs, any event, either of warfare or colonization, which would lead a discerning observer to perceive that their principles had been corrupted, their habits altered, or their speech changed, by the settlement among the aborigines of a new people.

If Europe was originally peopled by the gradual progress of migrations by land; if the nearest continent colonized the adjacent islands; if the shores of South Britain were thus peopled from Gaul, we may thence infer, that the northern districts of the same island were settled by migrants from the south, who were incited by curiosity, or urged by interest, to search for new settlements, while the original impulse yet produced its early effects. This reasoning is confirmed by facts. It will be found, that the Celtic tribes of North Britain practised the same worship, followed the same manners, and spoke the same language: and these circumstances are proofs which demonstrate the sameness of the people, with greater conviction than the fanciful theories of philosophers, or the absurder intimations of ignorant chroniclers.

In every history it is of the greatest importance to ascertain the origin of the people, whose rise, and progress, and fortune, it is proposed to investigate. But in an account of North Britain, that object becomes still more important, when it is considered how often its aborigines have been traced to various sources, and how much its annals are involved in obscurity. Whether the aborigines of North Britain were of Gaelic or Gothic origin has been vehemently and obstinately debated. The lineage and the chronology of the Caledonians, the Picts, and the Scots, have been investigated with the zeal of party rather than the intelligence and candour of rational inquirers, who examine much more than dispute.

It

It has been observed, that the British isles were peopled by Celtic tribes in the most early ages. These settlements were made while only one race of men inhabited western Europe. The Gothic migrations, which are but recent, when compared with the colonization of Europe, had not then begun. And from those intimations we might easily infer, that the Gaulish tribes, who planted the southern parts of Britain, found a ready course throughout every division of it, and a final settlement in the northern districts of the same island. North Britain, during the first century, is a small but genuine mirror of Gaul during the same age. North Britain was inhabited by one-and-twenty clans of Gaelic people, whose polity, like that of their Gaelic progenitors, did not admit of very strong ties of political union. They professed the same religious tenets as the Gauls, and performed the same sacred rites: their stone monuments were the same, as we know from remains. Their principles of action, their modes of life, their usages of burial, were equally Gaelic: and, above all, their expressive language, which still exists, for the examination of those who delight in such lore, was the purest Celtic.

To leave no doubt with regard to the aborigines of North Britain, which is of such importance to the truth of history, Mr. Chalmers subjoins copious proofs of that simple notion of their original settlement. These proofs consist of a comparison between the names of places in South Britain and the same names in North Britain, under the following heads: 1. Promontories, hills, and harbours: 2. Rivers, rivulets, and waters: 3. Miscellaneous names of particular districts. The identity of the names of places in both the divisions of our island being certain, as well the fact, as their meaning, no doubt can remain but the same people must have imposed the same names on the same objects, in the north and in the south of the British islands.

At the time of Agricola's invasion, Caledonia, in its largest extent, from the Tweed and the Eden on the south, to Caithness point on the north, was possessed by one-and-twenty tribes of aboriginal Britons, who were populous in proportion to the greater or less fertility of the districts which they severally occupied: the tribes on the west coast must have been fewer in numbers than the more potent clans on the eastern shore. Every tribe enjoyed the ancient privilege of being each independent of the whole; and only united under a pendragon when danger pressed, and necessity demanded the authority of a single person for the safety of the whole people, according to the Celtic principle of disunited independence.

These tribes were :

1. The *Ottadini*, who occupied the whole extent of coast, from the Southern Tine to the Firth of Forth; inhabiting the half of Northumberland; the east part of Roxburghshire; the whole of Berwick, and of East Lothian; having their chief town at *Bremenium*, which is undoubtedly *Rocheſter*, on Reed-water, in Northumberland. The British name of the *Ottadini* is ſuppoſed to be derived from the ſite of their country, which ſtretches out from the great river Tine northward, along the coaſt of the German ſea, and the Firth of Forth.

2. The *Gadeni*, who inhabited the interior country, on the weſt of the *Ottadini*, from the Tine on the ſouth to the Forth on the north; comprehending the weſt part of Northumberland; the ſmall part of Cumberland lying on the north of Irthing river; the weſt part of Roxburgh; the whole of Selkirk, Tweeddale, much of Mid-Lothian, and nearly all Weſt Lothian; having *Curia*, on the Gore water, for their capital. Their British name is ſuppoſed to be derived from the many groves which in thoſe days added both ſtrength and ornament to their various country.

3. The weſtern clan of the *Selgovæ* inhabited Annandale, Nithſdale, and Eſſedale, in Dumfriſhire; the eaſt part of Galloway, as far as the river Deva, or Dee, which was their weſtern boundary; and they had the Solway Frith for their ſouthern limit. The British name of the *Selgovæ* is ſuppoſed to be deſcriptive of their country; which lay on a *dividing* water, and which by the new ſettlers, who were introduced during the middle ages, was denominated the Solway.

4. The remarkable tribe of the *Novantes* inhabited the middle and weſt parts of Galloway from the Dee on the eaſt to the Irish ſea on the weſt: they had the Solway Frith, and the Irish ſea, on the ſouth, and the chain of hills, the *Uxellum-montes* of Richard, which ſeparate Galloway from Carrick on the north; and they poſſeſſed *Lucopibia*, on the ſite of the preſent Whithern, for their principal town; with another town, which was named *Rerigonium*, on the *Rerigonius Sinus*, the Loch-Ryan of modern maps. They are ſuppoſed to have derived their British name from the nature of their region, which abounded with ſtreams.

5. The *Damnii* inhabited the whole extent of country from the *Uxellum-montes* of Richard, the ridge of hills between Galloway and Ayrſhire, on the ſouth, to the river Eren on the north, comprehending all Strathcluyd, the ſhires of Air, Renfrew, and Stirling, with a ſmall part of the ſhires of Dunbarton and Perth. Their towns were *Vanduaria*, at Paisley; *Colania*, in the ſouth eaſtern extremity of *Strathclyde*; *Coria*,
at

at Caerstairs, in eastern Clydesdale; *Alauna*, on the river Allan; *Lindum*, near the present Ardoch; and *Victoria*, at Dealginrofs, on the Ruchil water. Such were the five tribes, who occupied, during the first century, that ample region, from the Tine and the Solway on the south, to the Forth and the Clyde on the north, varying their limits, no doubt, as ambition pressed, or weakness gave way, during the succession of many ages.

6. The *Horestii* inhabited the country between the *Bodotria*, or Forth, on the south, and the *Tavus*, or Tay, on the north; a district which comprehended the shires of Clackmanan, Kinross and Fife, with the east part of Strathern, and the country, lying westward of the Tay, as far as the river Brand. From the natural strength of their country, the *Horestii* are supposed to have derived their British name.

7. The *Venricones* possessed the country between the river Tay on the south, and the river Carron on the north; comprehending Gowrie, Strathmore, Stormont, and Strathardle, in Perthshire; the whole of Angus, with the larger part of Kin-cardineshire; having their chief town *Orrea*, on the north-east margin of the *Tavus* or Tay.

8. The *Taixali* inhabited the northern part of the Mearns, and the whole of Aberdeenshire, to the Doveran; a district which included the promontory of Kinaird's head, to which the Romans gave the name of *Taixalorum promontorium*; and they had for their chief town *Devana*, on the north side of the river Dee, six miles above its influx into the sea; being the *Normandykes* of the present times. They, probably, derived their British appellation from the *fair headland*, which is the most prominent feature of their open and pointed region.

9. The *Vacomagi* possessed the country on the south side of the Murray Frith, from the Doveran on the east, to the Nefs, the *Longus* of Richard, on the west; an extent which comprehended the shires of Banff, Elgin, Nairn, the east part of Inverness, with Braemar, in Aberdeenshire. Their towns were the *Ptoroton* of Richard, the *Alata Castra* of Ptolemy, at the mouth of the *Varar*, where the present Burghead runs out into the Frith; the *Tueffis*, on the east bank of the Spey; with *Tamea*, and *Banatia*, in the interior country.

10. The *Albani*, who were subsequently called *Damnii* *Albani* from their having been subjected to the *Damnii*, inhabited the interior districts, between the lower ridge of the Grampians, which skirt the southern side of the loch and river Tay on the south; and the chain of mountains that forms the southern limit of Invernesshire on the north; comprehending Braidalban, Athol, a small part of Lochaber, with Appin, and

and Glenorchy, in Upper-Lorn; a country, as Richard intimates, surrounded with mountains, and replenished with lakes. The British word, *Alban*, means greatest, utmost, or superior height; as *Gwyr Albanus*, consequently, signifies the men of the upper mountains: the Welsh denominate *Scotland* by the appropriate word *Alban*, even to the present times.

11. The *Attacotti*, inhabited the whole country from Loch-Fine, the *Lelanonius Sinus* of Richard on the west, to the eastward of the river Leven, and Loch-Lomond, comprehending the whole of Cowal, in Argyleshire, and the greater part of Dunbartonshire. They are supposed to have been called, in the British speech, the *Eithacoeti*, or the men dwelling along the extremity of the wood.

12. The proper *Caledonii* inhabited the whole of the interior country from the ridge of mountains which separates Inverness and Perth, on the south, to the range of hills that forms the forest of Balnagowan, in Ross, on the north; comprehending all the middle parts of Inverness, and of Ross. This territory formed a considerable part of the extensive forest which, in early ages, spread over the interior and western parts of the country, on the northern side of the Forth and Clyde, and to which the British colonists gave the descriptive appellation of *Celyddon*, signifying literally the *coverts*, and generally denoting a *woody* region. From the great extent of country to which the descriptive term *Celyddon* was applied, this name, in its romanized form of *Caledonia*, was, in after times, extended to the whole peninsula, on the northern side of the Forth and Clyde.

13. The *Cantæ* inhabited the east of Ross-shire, from the æstuary of Varar on the south, to the Abona, or Dornoch Frith, on the north; having *Lona*, or Cromarty Frith, which indented their country in the centre, and a ridge of hills, the *Uxellum montes*, on the west.

14. The south eastern coast of Sutherland was inhabited by the *Logi*, whose country extended from the Abona, or Dornoch Frith, on the south-west, to the river *Ila* on the east. The *Logi*, whose country extended from the Abona, or Dornoch Frith, on the south-west, to the river *Ila* on the east. The *Logi*, probably drew their name from the British word *Lygi*, which was naturally applied to a people living on the shore.

15. The *Carnabii* inhabited the south, the east, and north east of Caithness, from the *Ila* river; comprehending the three great promontories of *Virubium*, or Nosshead, of *Virvedrum*, or Duncansby-head, and of *Tarvedrum*, or the *Oreas promontorium*, the Dunnet-head of the present times. The *Carnabii* derived

derived their appropriate appellation, like the kindred Carnabii of Cornwall, from their residence on remarkable promontories.

16. The small tribe of the Catini inhabited the north-west corner of Caithness, and the eastern half of Strath-Naver, in Sutherlandshire; having the river *Naver*, the *Navari-fluvius* of Ptolomy, the *Nabæus-fluvius* of Richard, for their western boundary: they probably derived their appellation from the British name of the weapon, the *Cat*, or *Catai*, wherewith they fought.

17. The *Mertæ* occupied the interior of Sutherland; and probably derived their name from the British *Meredw*, or *Merydd*, signifying flat, or sluggish; and conveying, perhaps, some analogous quality of the people.

18. The *Carnonacæ* inhabited the north and west coast of Sutherland, and a small part of the western shore of Ross, from the Naver rivers on the east, round to the *Volfas*-bay on the south-west. The *Carnonacæ* probably derived an appropriate name from the British *Cerneinog*; signifying the country of points.

19. The west coast of Ross, from *Volfas-Sinus* on the north, to the *Itys* on the south, was inhabited by the *Creones*, who derived their British name from their *fierceness*; *Crewon*, or *Crewonwys*, signifying the men of blood.

20. The *Cerones* inhabited the whole west coast of Inverness, and the countries of Ardnamurchan, Morven, Sunart, and Ardgowar, in Argyleshire; having the *Itys* of Richard, which is now called Loch Duich, on the north, and the *Longus*, or the Linne Loch, on the south.

21. The *Epidii* inhabited the south-west of Argyleshire, from Linne Loch on the north, to the Frith of Clyde, and the Irish sea on the south; including Ceantyr, the point whereof was called the Epidian promontory, which is now the Mull of Ceantyr; and were bounded on the east by the country of the Albani, and the *Lelanonius Sinus*, or the Loch Fine of the present day. The *Epidii*, no doubt, derived their descriptive appellation from the British *Ebyd*, a peninsula; as they inhabited chiefly the remarkable neck of land which has since been called by the Scoto-Irish colonists *Ceantire*.

In tracing the colonization of North Britain, Mr. Chalmers describes the several lineages who have successively inhabited this country in every age. 1. At the birth of Christ, the same British people, of Gaulish origin, possessed both north and south Britain. The British people remained, during four centuries and a half, notwithstanding the Roman conquests, without much other change, than acquiring a greater or less civilization, from the long residence of the Romans among

them. And they left within every district of North Britain indubitable traces of their original colonization, in the British names of places which the topography even now exhibits to every inquisitive eye. 2. Soon after the Roman abdication, a new people of Gothic origin came in upon the British tribes; settled upon the Tweed, and colonized upon the Forth; and, in the progress of their conquests, introduced themselves upon the Solway and the Clyde. The Anglo-Saxons left every where, within the southern districts of North Britain, distinct traces of their settlements, by the names which they imposed on places, as the local maps would evince, if history did not relate the arrival of the Angles, their conquests, and their settlements. 3. Soon after the beginning of the sixth century, a second people, but of Gaelic origin, came in, from Ireland, upon the British tribes of Teintire and Argyle; and in the quick progress of two centuries and a quarter, the Scoto-Irish colonists overspread the western isles and highlands, where their descendants have continued unmixed, till late times, to speak their Gaelic language, and to practise their peculiar customs. 4. At the end of the eighth century new migrants from Ireland settled amongst the romanized Britons, and Gothic intruders, in Galloway; and over-running that great peninsula, by speedy settlement, were, after a while, joined by the kindred people of Kintire and Argyle, in giving new inhabitants to the districts, and novel names to the places, as far as the Clyde and the Annan. Such were the three races of men who were the only people that ever made permanent settlements in North Britain, if we except the Scandinavians who colonized Orkney and Caithness. The Britons were the first who became known, during the Roman period, by the name of Picts; the Saxons were the second people, whose descendants have finally prevailed over the posterity of the other two; and the Irish Scots of Kintire, Argyle, and Galloway, were the third race, who, by a singular fortune, were doomed to new settle and new name every district of proper Scotland. The year 843, as it is the commencement of the Scottish period, is also the epoch of the ascendancy of the Scots over the Pictish government: the Scots now mixed with the Picts throughout *Pictinia*; and, as they overspread the country, gave new names to almost every place, which they acquired by their address, or arms: it was from this epoch, when the Scots became the predominating people, that their Gaelic language also became the common speech, in proper Scotland, northward of the two Friths; that their policy was practised as the universal law; and their manners prevailed as the general usages; and these representations, with regard to those
successive

successive settlements, are attested by the united voice of history, tradition, and topography. The chief objects of inquiry, with regard to the Saxon colonization of *proper Scotland*, are to trace the change, which certainly took place, during the Scoto-Saxon period, and which introduced Saxon, Norman, and Flemish colonists among the Gaelic inhabitants. In this period, an Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-Norman, and Anglo-Belgic colonization began, in the country beyond the Forth, and a Scoto-Saxon dynasty commenced. The prevalence of the Celtic customs was insensibly superseded by the introduction of new manners, and the influence of a Celtic government gradually reduced, by the establishment of an Anglo-Norman jurisprudence, and by the complete reform of a Celtic church.

The subsequent periods of Scottish history are, 1. The *Brucean* period, which began by the accession of Robert I. in 1306, and ended with the demise of David II. in 1371: it only comprehends two busy reigns. 2. The *Stewartine* period, which, as it commenced with a new dynasty, in 1371, and extends to the dawn of *the Reformation*, in 1558, will be found to comprehend the unimportant reigns of eight princes. 3. From *the epoch of the Reformation*, five-and-forty years of civil contest, and the feeble misrule of a corrupt people, will carry us forward to the accession of King James, in 1603, when the crowns of Scotland, and of England, were united, by the voice of policy and of right. 4. Little more than the efflux of a wretched century, comprehending civil wars, domestic conflicts, and a memorable revolution, will conduct us to the necessary union of those two congenerous nations. 5. And another period of almost equal length will convey the reader through great events, and prosperous times, to the union of Great Britain with Ireland.

EXTENT AND POPULATION. Scotland is divided from England on the south by the Sark, a rivulet which falls into the Solway Frith for about half its course, thence by an imaginary line to the Esk, near Kirk Andrews, by the Esk to the influx of the Liddel; by the Liddel and the Kirkshop Burn to its source in Carbic Hill, by an imaginary line which running over the summits of Pull-fell, Carter-fell, and Black-hall-hill to Cheviot-hill, and then tends to the northward, to reach the Tweed, near Coldstream, and by the southern bank of that river to its mouth. On the east its shore is washed by the British ocean, on the north by the North Sea, on the west by the Atlantic. It was the coalition of the Picts and Scots, A.D. 843, the amalgamation of the Strathclyde Britons, in 975, and the annexation of Lothian, in 1020, that formed the kingdom

kingdom of Scotland, which in the progress of aggrandizement acquired its modern name, in the Scoto-Saxon language, from the ascendancy of the Scots. The Scottish kings obtained the Hebrides, the Orkney, and Shetland isles, in more recent times. Of the continent of Scotland, from Cape Wrath, on the north-west of Sutherland, to the Mull of Galloway, the length is about 275 statute miles. The extreme breadth, from Buchanness on the east, to Ru-na-Moan, on the western coast of Ross-shire, is 150 miles. And the necessary result of every estimate is, that Scotland, with her numerous isles, in the superficial measurement, contains many millions of acres; and in general contents, comprehends numerous lakes, and many mountains; much that is barren, and little that is fertile, except in its mineral products below.

MOUNTAINS. Scotland is generally rugged, even the eastern parts which are the least broken, being diversified with hills of considerably bolder elevation than those of England. More than two thirds of the kingdom may be considered as mountainous, but those parts which are peculiarly designated by the appellation of **HIGHLANDS** are Argyle-shire, the west of Perth-shire, and the counties of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness.

Streams and rivers are the best means of tracing the features of a country, and tracing the course and ramifications of its highlands, hills, and mountains. By these guides we shall endeavour to ascertain the course and connections of the different scenes of heights which rise in almost every part of Scotland. On the southern border the first range which meets our eye commences with the Blackhall-hills, which form the boundary of the two kingdoms, and run due west nearly to the shore of Renfrew-shire. The principal elevations in this line are Carter-fell, 1602 feet above the level of the sea, Hartfell, 2582, the Lead-hills, 1564; Wanloch-head, Middlefield-law, and Loudon-hill. Connected with this chain are Tinto-hill, 2368, the high grounds overhanging the Ettrick, the Eildin-hills, 1330, Black-house heights, 2370; those towards Peebles, between the Tweed and the Yarrow; and on the other side a branch stretching through Dumfries and Kirkcudbright to Wigtown-bay, on which we distinguish the points of Layfell, Blackfell, and Cairnsmoor. Beyond the Tweed is another lower series stretching from St. Abb's Head, through Haddington-shire to the Soutrie Hills. The most distinguished point is Lammer-muir. In the district bounded by the Clyde and the Forth we discern none strongly marked except the Campsey-hills, between the two rivers, running from east to west.

Beyond the Tay is the vast mass of the Grampian mountains, the southern boundary of the Highlands, running across the

the country from north-east to south-west, as far as Loch Lomond. On one side they are joined by the secondary range of the Oickill hills, and on the other to be united with a ridge, of which the most striking part appears to run from east to west, along the course of the Dee, and forms the Scarfour and Bengloer mountains. Among these it is impossible to overlook the bold elevations of Benlomond 3262 feet, Carintur and Ben Derrig 3550. Another ridge may be traced from north-east to south-west between the Spey and the Doern, which unites with the last toward the source of the Dee, and not far from the singular mountain Cairngorum, 4060. These united ridges then proceed eastwards by the bed of the Spey and the two lochs Cricht and Laggan towards Fort Augustus, which is evidently the most elevated land of the country except the mountains. From hence a branch skirts the lochs passing north-east and south-west through Argyleshire, and is discoverable to the extremity of Kintyre. Remarkable heights, either rising from or connected with this ridge, are Shihallion, 3564; Benlawers, 4015; Benvolich, 3300; Ben Nivis, 4370; and the solitary mountain Cruchan Ben, 3300. Returning to the eastern side we notice a secondary range in the direction of the Doern, passing the sources of the Wrie, the Yethan, and Ugie, and terminating in Mormond-hill, not far from Kinnaid-head. Beyond the lochs another chain runs parallel with their shores from Morven north easterly to Mealfourvourny, 3060 feet.

The main elevation of the ground which we have traced to the space between the two lochs at Fort Augustus continues through the middle of the kingdom sending off numerous ramifications on each side toward the eastern and western shores. In this the most distinguished height is Ben Wyvis, 3720 feet. In Sutherland it seems to divide into two branches in the district called Dirry Moor-forest, of which one proceeds towards the northern promontory called Cape Wrath, having in its direction Kulloch-hill and Ben More, and apparently connected with it, Ben Auchnagowan. The other branch runs by the sources of the Helinsdale into the center of Caithness, where it is terminated by the mass of hills, of which the most distinguished are the Pap of Caithness, 1919, and the Scarabin Hills, 1876.

RIVERS. Comparatively few rivers of Scotland are navigable. From the abruptness of the mountains, and depth of the vallies, and the different forms and texture of the ground they traverse, some of these rivers frequently expand in the hollows and ravines into locks, and as often resume their original form; others pursue a direct course, sometimes shallow,

low, sometimes with the rapidity of a torrent, and almost all are obstructed by rocks, sands, and cataracts.

Leaving the smaller streams to be noticed in the description of the counties, we enumerate the principle rivers.

The *Forth*, one of the most noble rivers in Scotland, rises near the foot of the Leven hills, and running eastward receives many considerable streams, which descend from the heights in the midland region. It passes by Stirling, from thence winds in bold curves to Alloway, below expands to the breadth of four or five miles, again contracts at Queen's Ferry to scarcely more than two, and as it opens to the sea again spreads to the breadth of eight or nine miles. In this opening which is called the Firth of Forth, are several good harbours and an excellent road. The largest ships may find anchorage within a mile or less, and vessels of considerable burthen may ascend with the tide, which flows as high as Stirling, a few miles above which place, the Forth ceases to be navigable. From the mouth of the Firth to Stirling is twenty miles and the breadth from Berwick to Fifeness is full fifteen. This river has a peculiarity with respect to its tides, which deserves attention. For several miles, both above and below Clackmannan, the tides exhibit a phenomenon, called by sailors a *leaky tide*. It happens always in good weather during the neap tides, and sometimes also during the spring tides if the weather be uncommonly fine. When the water has flowed for three hours, it runs back for an hour and a half nearly as far as where it began to flow. It returns immediately, and flows, during another hour and a half, to the same height it was at before; and this change takes place both in the flood and ebb tides: so that there are actually double the number of tides in this river that are to be found any where else. In very boisterous weather, however, these leaky tides are by no means regular: the water only swells and gorges without any perceptible current, as if the two tides were acting against each other. The cause of this singular phenomenon has not yet been discovered.

The *Tay*, the largest river in North Britain, rises in Braid Albin, is augmented by the junction of numerous streams; proceeds eastward, continually augmenting its volume, and expands into Loch Dochart and Loch Tay. It is afterwards joined by the Levir, a considerable river, which waters Glen Levir, proceeds trending south easterly, by Dunkeld, in a winding course, receives continual supplies by the junction of other streams; passes by Perth, is joined below by the Enn, forms a frith by spreading to the breadth of three miles, again contracts, and soon after opens with the German Ocean:

the mouth of the frith is embarrassed with sands, and is scarcely three fathoms deep, but within it deepens to six fathoms. It is not navigable to any great distance from the sea, owing probably to the mountainous nature of the country which it traverses in the first part of its course.

The *North Esk* rises in the north-west part of the county of Midlothian, from the lake called Lochlee, in the parish of that name; and after passing the ruins of the ancient castle of Innermark, and rolling its rapid stream for fifteen miles eastward, through the deep and dreary valley of Glenesk, in Stracathro parish, joins the Westwater, which had been collected among the deep indentations of the Grampians, in the parishes of Lethnot and Navar; and as it proceeds is soon after farther augmented by the Cruick, which had descended from the upper part of the parish of Fern, on the southern declivity of the Grampians; and at last, about two miles north-east from Montrose, loses itself in the German Ocean.

South Esk has its rise also in the north-west part of the county of Midlothian, in the Grampians, from among the cliffs in the upper part of Clova, and after gliding south eastward for about sixteen miles, at the ancient castle of Innerguharity, adorned with extensive plantations, mingles its waters with those of the river Profne and the brook Carity, which had rolled down through the glens or vales of the same name, in the parishes of Keveimuir, Leutrathen, and Kingoldrum; and then turning eastward, and being joined by the clear rivulet Norin, from the parish of Taunadice, and moving slowly along through a flat and fertile country, falls at last into the sea at Montrose.

The *Dee* derives its origin from the Braes of Mar, and after running almost directly eastward for fifty miles falls into the sea south of New Aberdeen.

The *Don*, which rises a little further north, pursues a course almost parallel, receives the Wrie at Inverarie, and disembogues itself into the sea north of Old Aberdeen, within four miles of the Dee, both being more placid than the generality of the Scottish rivers, are probably navigable for boats or floats to a considerable distance inland.

The next stream of any importance is the beautiful river *Doveran*, which takes its rise a few miles north of the Don, and proceeds north easterly, winding through Strathbogie and Strathdevon, till it terminates in the Murray Frith. It forms two little harbours for the town of Bamff, but is probably not navigable to any considerable distance.

The *Spey* rises in the mountains of Badenoch, in the heart of Invernesshire, expands into Loch Spey, proceeds with a winding

winding course north easterly, receiving numerous streams, and falls into the Murray Frith near Garnach or Garmouth. It is probably not navigable, for even at its mouth it is shallow, and its course is extremely rapid.

The next considerable stream is the *Nefs*, which is derived from the vast body of water called Lochness, and after a course of a few miles falls into the Murray Frith, at Inverness. This loch might be rendered extremely serviceable to the internal communications of the Highlands, as vessels of sixty tons have ascended from the Frith to Fort Augustus at the head of the loch.

The *Beaulie* is chiefly composed of three lesser streams; the *Farrur*, *Canich*, and *Glas*, that give names to as many glens. The river formed by these streams runs about eight miles before it enters the Frith of Beaulie, or most western division of the Moray Frith. On this tract are the falls of Kilmorach, a few miles to the west of the village of Beaulie. The banks of the river are covered with natural wood, and are bold and rocky. At one place the river divides, forming the beautiful island *Aigash*, on which several saw mills are erected. The Beaulie has a very valuable salmon fishing below the falls.

Several streams unite in the south of Rossshire to form the *Connel*, which passes by Duignealland, and falls with a copious stream into the Frith of Cromarty.

Proceeding northwards round the shores of Caithness and Sutherland, we observe no streams of importance, either from their magnitude or the length of their course. The most remarkable are the *Helmedale*, which has a small creek at its mouth; the *Thurso*, which likewise forms an inconsiderable port, the *Strathy*, the *Arms-dale*, and the *Nevern*. The northern part of the western coast affords still fewer streams, but instead is deeply indented with bays and inlets, or as they are termed lochs, which form good harbours, at least, for vessels of the middling size. The most considerable are *Laxford*, *Alva*, and *Broome*; the last a large bay studded with islands extending twelve miles inland. *Gaze Loch*, and *Loch Torredon* are also large bays. The *Lanart* is a long inlet in Argyleshire; *Oban* bay, a commodious harbour, almost land locked, and affording from eleven to twenty fathom water; the *Linnhe* extending to Fort William; and *Loch-fyn* and *Loch Lory*, two considerable inlets from the æstuary of Clyde.

Continuing to the southward, we reach the noble river *Clyde*, from which the district derives its name. After descending from the highest region in the south of Scotland, and collecting a variety of streams from the mountainous district of Crawford and Crawford-John, the Clyde, by the time it

arrives at the upper part of the parish of Lamington, has become a very considerable river; thereafter it winds around the roots of Tintoc, in a beautiful and serpentine course, among cultivated banks, for many miles. Its waters are clear, and it rolls over a bed consisting of hard gravel, and sometimes of great stones approaching to the character of rocks. It generally has fords at the distance of every one or two miles, which may be passed on foot; and bridges have been built upon the most important roads. The Clyde is here, however, a dangerous river; it is apt to swell very unexpectedly, in consequence of rain falling among the mountains where it takes its rise. During the heats of summer, the brightness of its waters is continually tempting young persons in the neighbourhood to the amusement of bathing; whilst its stony bottom, the weight of the stream, which often takes sudden turns, and the remarkable inequality of the bottom, frequently hurry them to destruction: no dry season passing without several lives being lost in this way. Between the parishes of Covington and Pettinain on the west, and of Liberton and Carstairs on the east and north, the Clyde seems almost to stagnate amidst the rich meadows by which it is surrounded, and for several miles its course is slow, and its waters deep. On approaching the parish of Lanark it resumes its former appearance, and flows along, in an expanded stream, over a stony bottom, till it approach the celebrated falls. There, on account of the weight of water contained in the river, the height of the falls, and the scenery by which they are surrounded, the Clyde is an object of much curiosity. The uppermost fall, called *Bonniton Linn*, is about two miles and a half from the town of Lanark; and in visiting it the traveller has to pass by the principal fall, called *Corra Linn*. Between these two cataracts the river is inclosed by a wall of rocks; at the bottom of which, overlooked by tremendous precipices, it boils and foams over the shelving and broken rocks which continually interrupt its dark and horrid course. Along the eastern side of the river a romantic road is formed, with fine woods on the one hand, and the river roaring below, in a deep chasm on the other. This road reaches from the house of Bonniton, near the Corra Linn, to the uppermost or Bonniton Linn. Above the Bonniton or highest Linn the river exhibits a broad, expanded, and placid appearance, beautifully environed with plantations of forest trees. Its course is towards the north-west, but it suddenly turns towards the north-east; and at the bending of the Bonniton Linn, where the river falls over a part of the stratum of rock which forms the termination of that along which the road already mentioned runs, from an elevated point

point above the cataract, or linn, the whole body of the river is seen precipitating itself, with a dreadful noise, into the chasm below, over the edge of a perpendicular rock. The height of the rock, including a small fall immediately above the perpendicular descent, is about thirty feet. From this fall the appearance of the river is suddenly changed; its course is contracted; and, as already mentioned, it angrily boils and thunders, among rocks and precipices, down towards the principal or Corra Linn, at the distance of half a mile. The traveller returns along the precipitous path, already mentioned, which overhangs the river. We have said that its sides consist of walls of rock: these are equi-distant, and wonderfully regular, forming, as Mr. Pennant expresses it, a stupendous natural masonry, from whose crevices daws and other wild birds are incessantly springing. These rocks are rendered the more pleasing, because every jutting corner is covered with natural wood, the shade of which augments the magnificence of the scenery.

The *Irvine* and the *Garnock*, rising at some distance from each other, fall into the sea at Irvine, and form a harbour once nearly choked up, but since recovered, and still capable of improvement.

The *Air* and the *Blainock* are chiefly remarkable for the harbours formed by their influx into the sea.

The *Nith*, a winding stream, rises in the south of Ayrshire, is swelled in its course by several lesser rivers, and pours a considerable body of water into the sea six miles below Dumfries. Vessels of considerable burthen ascend with the tide to Dumfries. A little below Dumfries is the village of Solway, which gives the name of Solway Frith to the æstuary of this river.

SHIRES. The antient national division of Scotland was into the counties north and south of the Forth, eighteen shires being comprehended in the southern division, and fifteen in the northern. These shires were sub-divided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks: for the present a general view of each shire is only given, preserving the alphabetical order used in describing the counties of England.

ABERDEENSHIRE

Was formerly called the county of Mar, from one of its divisions. It comprises Mar, Garifet, Strathbogie, and the greater part of Buchan. It is washed on the north and east by the Ocean, on the south-east is bounded by the chain of Grampian mountains which separates it from Kincardin, on the

the south by the shires of Forfar and Perth, and west by Inverness and part of Bamffshire. Its length from north-east to south-west is ninety miles, its breadth from south-east to north-west forty-two. So great a portion of its border being sea-coast, it has numerous ports which afford a safe and ready passage to the Orkney and Shetland isles, Greenland, Norway, the Baltic, and the coasts of Holland, Flanders, and France. The south-western part, or district of Mar, which borders on the Highlands, is well wooded, and produces excellent pines and birch, the bark of which the Highlanders use in tanning. The districts toward the east are bare, but not infertile, particularly the vale of Cromar; and the vicinity of Aberdeen is fruitful in barley and oats. The principal rivers are, the *Dee*, the *Don*, the *Ythan*, the *Ugie*, and the *Doveran*. They all abound with salmon, the catching and curing of which has long been a staple branch of business in Aberdeenshire.

Aberdeenshire was formerly divided into four districts, the names of which are still preserved, although they are not recognized in any political sense. These are Mar, Formarten, Buchan, and the Garioch. The district of Mar comprehends the whole country that lies between the rivers Dee and Don, and was again subdivided into three parts: viz. *Braemar*, the inland and highest division, as its name imports; *Mar-proper*, or *Mid Mar*, being the middle division; and *Cromar*, which is supposed to mean *Lower Mar*, the division next to the sea, in which stands the city of Aberdeen. The division called Formarten extends along the coast from the Don to the Ythan, and is bounded on the west by a ridge of low hills near Old Meldrum, which separate it from the Garioch. Buchan is the most northern division: it includes all that country which lies between the rivers Ythan and Doveran, and is, in some degree, peninsulated by these rivers, the one of which runs eastward, and the other northward, into the sea. This is in general a low champaign country, and capable of being cultivated by the plough except in a very few places. The Garioch is an inland district, and chiefly consists of one extensive vale, bounded on every side by a range of hills of moderate height, beginning near Old Meldrum, and extending westward about twenty miles.

The chief minerals in the county are granite, of which there is great abundance, quartz, asbestos, lime of a bad quality, millstones and slate; here also are found the stones well known to lapidaries by the name of cairn-gorm. On the bold and rocky shore of Buchan is that natural curiosity, so much visited and described by travellers, called the Buller or Boiler of Buchan. Dr. Johnson says, "no man can see it with indifference,

ence, who has either sense of danger or delight in rarity. It is a rock perpendicularly tubulated, united on one side with a high shore, and on the other rising steep to a great height above the main sea. The top is open, from which may be seen a dark gulph of water, which flows into the cavity, through a breach made in the lower part of the inclosing rock. It has the appearance of a vast well bordered with a wall. The edge of the Buller is not wide, and to those that walk round appears very narrow. He that ventures to look downward sees that if his foot should slip he must fall from his dreadful elevation upon stones on one side, or into the water on the other. We, however, went round, and were glad when the circuit was completed. When we came down to the sea we saw some boats and rowers, and resolved to explore the Buller at the bottom. We entered the arch which the water had made, and found ourselves in a place which, though we could not think ourselves in danger, we could scarcely survey without some recoil of the mind. The basin on which we floated was nearly circular, perhaps thirty yards in diameter. We were inclosed by a natural wall, rising steep on every side to a height which produced the idea of insurmountable confinement. The interception of all lateral light caused a dismal gloom. Round us was a perpendicular rock, above us the distant sky, and below an unknown profundity of water. If I had any malice against a walking spirit, instead of laying him in the Red Sea I would condemn him to reside in the Buller of Buchan."

This county contains three royal boroughs, Aberdeen, Kintore, and Inverury, besides the market-towns of Peterhead, Frazerburgh, Old Meldrum, Turreff, and Huntly.

Aberdeen, which is the principal city of the north of Scotland, stands at the south-east corner of the county, between the mouths of the rivers Dee and Don. It is divided into two municipal jurisdictions, called New and Old Aberdeen, each of which has a separate magistracy; and, what is still more singular, a separate and distinct university.

New Aberdeen is the royal borough, and is agreeably situated on a rising ground at the mouth of the river Dee. It is a handsome city, having many spacious streets, lined on each side by elegant houses, generally four stories high, built of granite from the neighbouring quarries. The market-place, in the centre, is a large oblong square, having on the north side the town-house, with a handsome spire; and adjoining to it the Tolbooth, a square tower, one hundred and twenty feet high, also surmounted with a spire. In the middle of Castle-street is the cross, the most complete perhaps of any of the kind in the kingdom. This town contains various charitable institutions,

stitutions, of which the chief are the Poor's House, Lady Drum's Hospital for old unmarried women, founded in 1663, Gordon's Hospital, the Infirmary, the Lunatic Hospital, and the Dispensaries. Besides these, every incorporated trade has a fund for decayed members, and there are many friendly societies for the same end. There is a fine bridge of seven arches over the Dee, built in 1530 by Bishop Dunbar, and repaired, or rather rebuilt by the magistrates of New Aberdeen, in 1724. The harbour lies at the bottom of the eminence on which the town stands, and is a blind gut into which the tide flows, bending in a curved form, and separated from the river, unless at its entry, by a low island, which has been evidently formed by the water gradually receding from the bottom of the eminence on which the town is placed. Aberdeen once enjoyed a great share in the North American trade: at present its chief imports are from the Baltic, and a few merchants trade to the Levant and the West Indies. Its exports are stockings, thread, salmon, grain, and meal, and some other articles. New Aberdeen has two private banking companies, who issue their own notes.

Old Aberdeen is pleasantly situated on the river Don, about a mile to the northward of New Aberdeen. It is a place of great antiquity, and was of considerable importance so long ago as the end of the ninth century. It has a neat town-house, a trades-hospital for decayed freemen and their widows, with an hospital for twelve poor men, founded by Bishop Dunbar in 1532. There was formerly a magnificent cathedral, dedicated to Saint Machar, which, with the bishop's palace, fell a sacrifice to the religious frenzy of the reformers. Two very antique spires, and an aisle, now used as the parish church, are the only remains. The universities will be noticed in another place.

The county sends one member to parliament, and Aberdeen, with Aberbrothie, Brechin, Montrose, and Inverbervie another.

The population of Aberdeenshire is 123,082. The number of houses is 25,822.

Of the towns, Aberdeen contains 1797 houses, and a population of 17,597 souls; Frasersburgh 511 houses, and 2215 souls; Peterhead 836, and 4491 souls; Machar 1483 houses, and 9911 souls; Huntley 498 houses, and 2863 souls; and Meldrum 411 houses, 1584 souls.

ARGYLESHIRE.

This county comprehends Argyle proper, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintyre, and Lorn, with part of the western isles.

This extensive county formed a considerable portion of the antient kingdom of Scotland. It is bounded on the north by Lochaber, on the east by Perthshire, and on the south and west insulated by the sea. Its extent from north to south is about 140 miles, and its greatest breadth, including the isles, about seventy. Perhaps no other portion of land of the same extent, in Europe, is so singularly broken by water; for it is so deeply indented with bays, lochs, and inlets as to present a cluster of peninsulas, and even the principal isles are separated by straits so narrow that they may be almost considered as prolongations of the continent or of each other. Thus Adnamurcham, Ardgoner, and Morven, are almost insulated by Loch Linnhe, Loch Eil, Loch Shiel, and Loch Sunart; upper Lorn and Benediraloach, by Lochs Leven and Etine; middle and nether Lorn by Lochs Etine and Awe; and Knapdale and Kintyre by Lochs Tarbat, Gail, and Tyne; the sound of Mull in some parts is less than two miles broad, that of Jura scarcely more; and many of the smaller isles are divided from the greater or the main land by straits of less than half a mile.

This shire, like other parts of the Highlands, is wild, dreary, and romantic. The vales and flatter districts may be considered as comparatively fertile, but the principal part of its surface is broken by hills, rocks, and mountains, or presents a melancholy and dreary waste of brown shaggy heath. This cheerless surface, however, covers rich mines of copper, lead, and iron; the mountains feed numbers of black cattle, almost wild; the woods and wastes, which are numerous and extensive, give shelter to deer and every species of game; and the inlets, lochs, and streams, which water every part of this singular region, abound with fish.

Argyle proper is a long narrow slip of land lying between the upper part of Loch Fine and Loch Awe in the south west, and on the north and east stretching to Lochaber and the boundary of Perthshire.

Cowal is another of this cluster of peninsulas, watered on the south by Loch Fine and the Frith of Clyde, and like Argyle stretching on the north-east to the Grampians, which bound Perthshire. Both these districts are mountainous.

The singular peninsula of Cantyre or Kintyre is several miles broad in the widest part, and stretches thirty-seven miles from north to south. It is mostly plain and arable, and considerably populous. Among its inhabitants are many Lowlanders, as they are termed by way of distinction from the natives of the Highlands, who have been drawn hither by the family of Argyle, to whom the peninsula belongs, to forward the cultivation of the land. Kintyre contains many villages, but

but no considerable place except Cambel-town. Near the southern cape is a light-house 230 feet above water, on the rocks called the Merchants, which were dangerous to ships passing through the North Channel.

The Lorns, which are divided from Argyle proper by Loch Awe, and nearly separated into two parts by Loch Etive, are tolerably fertile, bearing plenty of oats and barley; in some parts prettily wooded, and the most pleasant district of the shire of Argyle. This district is about thirty miles in length, and stretches from Knapdale to Lochaber. It comprizes the subdivisions of Barederaloch and Glenorchy, the last of which is highly picturesque. The Lorns once belonged to the family of Macdougall, some of whom still reside, but were transferred by marriage to that of Argyle. The chief place of note is the castle of Dunstaffnag, a massive tower built on a rock, an antient residence of the Scottish kings. Here was long preserved the celebrated stone now in Westminster Abbey, on which the Scottish kings were crowned; and some of the antient regalia were kept here till the beginning of the eighteenth century. The country abounds with druidical and other monuments.

Knapdale is parted from Cowal on the east by Loch Fine, connected with Kintyre on the south, bordered by Lorn on the north, Braidalbin on the north-east and north-west, and on the other side washed by the sea. It abounds with lochs, studded with islands, in some of which are castles belonging to the different proprietors. The ground is principally pasture, though on the side of Lochaber are some districts which produce grain.

It would be vain to attempt to particularize the numerous streams and torrents which water this rugged county, but attention is due to the lochs which form so important a feature in its topography.

Beginning on the north, the first is *Loch Leven*, ten miles long and scarcely one broad, and twenty-four fathoms at its greatest depth: it is a branch of Loch Linnhe. Its shores are irregularly indented: it is bounded on one side by mountains, and on the other skirted by the cultivated plain of Kinross, embellished with groves beautifully disposed. It contains several verdant inlets, on one of which is the castle, rendered memorable by the captivity of the unfortunate Queen Mary. This body of water abounds with pike, fine eels, and excellent trout. *Loch Sunart* is an inlet, twenty-four miles long and one broad, covered at its mouth by an island which forms two narrow channels on each side. *Loch Creran* is eight miles long and of irregular breadth. *Loch Etive* is a winding inlet

seventeen miles long, and scarcely one broad. It abounds with salmon. *Loch Awe* is a beautiful piece of water, about a mile wide and ten long. It is prettily studded with isles, some large enough to afford pasture, and all tufted with trees. The northern shore is well wooded, and on the north-east are vast and dark mountains, particularly Ben Cruachan, towering to a tremendous height. At its foot is the place where the waters of this lake fall into Loch Etine. *Loch Tarbat* is an inlet twelve miles long, having eight fathoms water close to the shores. It is bounded by hills varied with woods and tracts of heath. *Loch Fine*, a narrow and winding inlet, scarcely one mile broad, thirty from its extremity to the point of Lomond; in depth from sixty to seventy fathoms. It is famed for its fishery, being frequented by vast shoals of herrings from July to January. *Loch Long* is likewise an arm of the sea, from the Frith of Clyde, bounded by lofty hills and fifteen miles long. *Loch Gail* is a branch of Loch Loalg, five miles long and nearly one broad. *Loch Gare* is an inlet branching from the Clyde, five miles in length.

As the islands will be considered in another portion of this work, the chief towns in the county only are noticed here.

Cambel-town, which has risen from a petty fishing town to a flourishing state in the course of half a century, owes its prosperity to its excellent harbour, which is safe, deep, and capacious, and the principal station of vessels employed in the herring fishery. The town itself has sent out about eighty sail from twenty to thirty tons.

Inverary is in a romantic situation, on a small bay, where the Ayr falls into Loch Fine. The old town consisted of a few miserable huts, but the present was built in modern times on a new and elegant plan by the proprietors, the Dukes of Argyle. In the vicinity is the castle of Inverary, the principal seat of that noble family, and the whole of the neighbouring country is covered with woods of the finest timber, planted within the last half century. The principal inconveniences of this beautiful town are the want of fresh provisions during the winter, and the continual rains with which it is deluged for a considerable part of the year.

The population of Argyleshire amounts to 71,859. The number of houses is 13,141.

The number of houses in Cambel-town is 1000, of families 1582, of people 7093.

Inverary contains 275 houses, and 2051 persons.

AYRSHIRE.

THE county of Ayr is washed on the west by the sea, bordered on the south by Wigtown, on the east by Kirkcudbright, Dumfries, and Lanark, and north by Renfrew; it bends in a curve along the coast; it is in length ninety miles from north to south, and twenty-five where broadest from east to west. The southern parts are hilly but not mountainous, and the country populous and fertile, producing abundance of corn.

The greatest part of the sea opposite to this county receives the appellation of the *Frith of Clyde*, and is hemmed in on one side by the islands of Bute and Arran, and on the eastern side by the main-land or coast of Ayrshire. The sea opposite to the southern part of the county ought be considered as a part of the Irish channel: it advances to some distance eastward toward the centre of the county, forming a kind of bay of no great depth, but of great extent.

Excepting toward the southern boundary of Carrick, the mountains of Ayrshire are by no means remarkable for their height. Carleton hill rises with a steep ascent, and is situated so near the sea on the bay of that name, that at full tide there is little more than room for the traveller to pass without being in danger from the rocks that threaten to fall on him. It rises 518 yards above the level of the sea. Knockdaw and Knock-norman are equally high; but being farther removed from the shore, and standing near more elevated grounds, they do not so much strike the eye of the traveller. But the most remarkable is Knockdolian, whose height is 650 yards above the level of the sea; and as it rises in a conical shape, it is both a most beautiful object to the traveller by land, and of singular service as a conspicuous landmark to vessels at sea when they enter the Frith of Clyde. The hill called Black-side-end, in the parish of Sorn in Kyle, also deserves notice; it is between 1500 and 1600 feet high, and is the northern termination of a considerable ridge of hills; it commands a prospect of almost the whole extensive county of Ayr, the highlands of Galloway on the south, the Irish channel, the rock of Ailsa, the isles of Arran and Bute on the west, and part of the shires of Renfrew, Lanark, and Argyle on the north.

The principal rivers are the *Stinchar*, the *Girvan*, the *Doon*, the *Ayr*, the *Irvine*, the *Lugton*, and the *Garnock*; there are also several small lochs.

The minerals are coal, iron-stone and lime: there is also a quarry of mill-stones.

Ayrshire is subdivided into the three bailiwicks of Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham.

Carrick, the most southerly division bordering on Galloway, is thirty-two miles long, hilly and only fit for pasturage. It contains some woods and several lochs, one of which, *Loch Dun*, is six miles long and two broad. Although the district possesses no harbour, the people on the coast are principally employed in the herring-fishery, and dispose of their captures to the merchants of Glasgow. Carrick gives the title of Earl to the Prince of Wales.

Kyle, antiently called the shire of Ayr, is separated from Carrick by the Dun, and stretches to the Irvine. It is 25 miles long from east to west, and 24 broad from north to south. Though hilly it is more fertile and populous than Carrick.

Cunningham is less hilly than Kyle, fruitful and picturesque. It is divided from Kyle by the Irvine; on the north bounded by the Clyde, and on the west by the Frith. It is about 29 miles from north to south, and 12 from east to west.

In this county are two royal boroughs, Ayr and Irvine. *Ayr*, is of considerable antiquity, and appears to have been a place of note at the time of the Norman conquest. It consists of two towns; of which the ancient royal borough, situated upon the south-west side of the river, is the chief. That of Newton-upon-Ayr on the north-east side of the river, has a different political constitution, and is a borough of barony or regality holding directly of the king. The royal borough of Ayr is situated on a level peninsula formed by the sea and the converging waters of Ayr and Doon. The town consists of a broad street with two rows of well built houses and some lanes. Both Ayr and Newton-upon-Ayr are situated at a small distance above the place where the vessels lie, though a few houses stand near the quay. The entrance to the harbour has always been difficult, on account of a bank at the mouth of the river, formed by the sand which it brings down from the high country when in flood. The bed of the river is narrow, and the depth of water not above twelve feet, even at spring tides. Some ship-building is carried on here. Coal is exported to some of the Irish ports; and a few vessels import timber and other goods from the Baltic.

Irvine is situated in Cunningham, near the river of the same name. It is on the north side of the stream, about half a mile above the harbour, standing on a rising ground and a sandy soil: it is well aired and dry. It has one broad street, running from south-east to north-west on the south side of the river, but connected with the town by a stone bridge. The coal here makes a blazing and cheerful fire, and brings the highest prices

prices in Ireland. Hemp, iron, and timber, are imported from the Baltic; grain, hides, and skins, from Ireland.

Kilmarnock is the principal manufacturing town in Ayrshire. The chief disadvantage under which it labours is its inland situation, being about six or seven miles distant from the sea; but it is situated in the midst of a populous and fertile country, in which labour and provisions may be obtained for reasonable prices. Coal is likewise found in its immediate vicinity in vast abundance, and may be obtained more cheaply and easily than almost any where else in the neighbourhood. The town is in a low situation, and its form extremely irregular. The inhabitants have long dealt extensively in the manufacture of woollen goods and in making and exporting shoes and boots, besides a vast variety of other articles. The cotton manufacture has also been carried on of late years to a considerable extent.

The other towns and villages in this county are of less importance. *Saltcoats* is worthy of notice, as the principal watering place in Ayrshire. Another village, called *Stevenston*, stands a mile to the eastward of it, under the ridge at the termination of which Saltcoats is built. The town of Largs is upon the sea-shore toward the north-west corner of the county.

The population of Ayrshire amounts to 84,306 souls. The number of houses is 13,875.

Ayr contains 745 houses, and 5492 inhabitants. Kilmarnock 1093 houses, and 8079 inhabitants. Irvine 729 houses, and 4584 inhabitants.

BAMFFSHIRE OR BANFFSHIRE.

A PART of this county was once included in the ancient province of Moray, which is now distributed among the three counties of Bamff on the east, the shire of Elgin, or Moray properly so called, in the centre, and Nairnshire on the west. The county of Bamff is irregular in its form; as a narrow part of it advancing eastward along the shore, interposes between the county of Aberdeen and the Moray Frith; and on the eastern side of Aberdeenshire, on the sea-coast the parish of Saint Fergus, immediately to the northward of the mouth of the Ugie, belongs politically to Bamffshire. In other respects this county is tolerably regular, stretching from the Moray Frith on the north, in a south westerly direction upwards to the forest of Mar and the heads of the Dee and Don in Aberdeenshire. This, which may be considered, in a geographical point of view, as forming the regular county of

of Bamff, is situated within 51° of north latitude, extends from Bamff to Gairmouth, along the south shore of the Moray Frith, its northern boundary, about 24 English miles. The length, from the bay of Cullen, in a south-west direction to Loch Avon its southern boundary, is 50 miles. It preserves an average length of nearly 20 miles, till within five miles of that lake, where it is suddenly compressed into a breadth of little more than 3 miles; making in all a superficies of 1015 square miles, that is 649,600 English acres, or 516,635 Scottish acres.

The whole, except the tract along the sea-shore, may be described as a hilly mountainous country, interspersed with many fertile vallies well adapted to the cultivation of corn and grafs. The hills are either covered with heath or moss, affording little pasture, while from their bleak and barren aspect, they have a gloomy and unpleasant appearance.

The arable land, which bears but a small proportion to the waste, lies on the sides and toward the bottoms of the higher hills, or on the sides of those vallies through which the waters have their courses, or on the narrow level plains on the banks of these waters. In several of these vallies, where cultivation has hitherto been found impracticable, there is abundance of fine healthy pasture on which young cattle are reared to great advantage; the grounds being in general well sheltered by natural woods of oak, birch, alder, and other trees.

The principal rivers are the *Spey*, the *Avon*, the *Fiddick*, and the *Doveran*, which rises in Aberdeenshire, but is augmented in this county by the streams of the *Callrack* and *Blackwater*.

The minerals are lime-stone, marble, of which there is a curious species, called from the place where it is found, Portsoy marble, flesh-coloured granite, asbestos, and quartz.

There are two royal burghs, Bamff and Cullen.

Bamff, the capital of the shire, consists of two principal besides smaller streets, pleasantly situated on the side of a hill at the mouth of the *Doveran*. The harbour is bad, the entrance being subject to shifting sands, which the erection of a pier has not entirely obviated. A considerable quantity of the salmon caught on these coasts is exported from Bamff. Near the town, in a pleasant vale watered by the *Doveran*, is a magnificent seat built by the earls of Fife. Bamff gives the title of Baron to a branch of the Ogilvie family.

Cullen was formerly a constabulary, of which the Earl of Finlater was hereditary constable, and was at that time known by the name of Inverculan, from its situation at the mouth of the burn of Cullan or Cullen, which at the north end of the

town falls into the sea. The Earl of Finlater is hereditary prebys or provost, and proprietor of the whole town. The want of water is a great disadvantage to the place, there being only one good spring in the whole parish.

Portsoy is a considerable sea-port in the parish of Fordyce, about six miles from Cullen, and seven from Bamff. It is situated on a point of land projecting into the Moray Frith, which forms a safe harbour for vessels of a considerable size.

Macduff, Fochabers, and Keith are considerable villages.

Bamffshire contains 35,807 souls: the number of houses is 7955.

The town of Bamff consists of 673 houses, and 3571 inhabitants.

BERWICKSHIRE.

THE appellation of this shire is obviously derived from the designation of the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, the *Tued* of the Britons. The whole area of Berwickshire was called *Bernicia*, in the age of Bede. It was named in the Scoto-Irish Chronicle, *Saxonia*. And some time after the close of the Pictish period of the North British annals, A.D. 843., this district acquired, from the Saxon settlers, the Teutonic name of *Lothian*. In after times it was probably called the *Mers*; but, if it derived this name, as Camden intimates, from its being a *march country*, the appellation must have been applied, after the year 1020, when this fine district was ceded to the Scottish king. But it was more probably called by this name from the Anglo-Saxon *merse*, a marsh, *mariscus*, a naked plain. It did not, however, obtain the name of Berwickshire, till after the commencement of the Scoto-Saxon period, when the whole country between the Tweed and Lothian had been placed under the useful regimen of an appropriate sheriff.

The shire of Berwick is bounded by Roxburghshire, and a part of Northumberland on the south and south-east; by the British sea, on the east and north-east; by Haddingtonshire, on the north and north-west; and by Edinburghshire, and a part of Roxburghshire, on the south and south-west. The extreme length of this shire, from east to west, is 31 miles: its utmost breadth, from south to north, is 19 miles. Its area contains 446 square miles, or 285,440 statute acres. Its population in 1801, being 30,206 souls, evinces that there are 67 : 72 persons to every square mile.

Berwick-

Berwickshire, in the tradition of its people, is usually divided into three great districts; the *Merse*, *Lamermoor*, and *Lawderdale*.

Of the heights of this shire, the Lamermoor is the most remarkable range; forming an extensive curvature of unsightly heights; and stretching from the western marches of Mid Lothian, to their termination on the sea, where the Lamermoor abruptly declines into the precipitous promontories of St. Abbs-head, Earnheugh, and Fast Castle, which form some of the highest and most curious cliffs on the eastern coast of North Britain. The heights of Lamermoor rise to 1615 feet above the level of the sea. The tops of its hills and its higher slopes, are covered with heath; but its lower declivities admit of the operation of the plough.

In this shire there are other hills which run up to considerable elevations, though they do not assume the dignity of mountains. In the middle of this district rises Duns-law, from a base of between two and three miles circumference, in a gradual ascent on all sides to the height of 630 feet, above the level of the sea, and terminates in a flat summit of almost thirty acres. The Merse, when it is viewed from the heights above, seems to be a perfect plain, though it is full of inequalities, and swells at Hirsel, Lamberton, and Dunse, into considerable hillocks.

Berwickshire has some coals, in the vicinity of which limestone has as usual been found. Marl of every sort abounds in every district; and in Chirnside, on the banks of the Whiteader, has been found a species of gypsum, though not of the best kind. Freestone of various kinds and colours abounds: there is some slate, and quarries of building stone, which is said to be impregnated with iron ore: pebbles for the lapidary's use, which seem to be of a good quality, are commonly found along the margin of the Tweed, as well as in the adjoining fields. At Hardwell a copper-mine was worked, but relinquished in 1780: mines of the same metal have also been discovered in Lawder parish, and pure quicksilver in Hidehill. In Home parish there is a rising protuberance, which is called Lurgie Craigs, and consists of regular ranges of whin-stones, like those of Arthur's seat, near Edinburgh. There are a few springs of mineral water; and near the ruined nunnery of Saint Bothan's, issues a spring which is called Saint Bothan's well, and which neither fogs nor freezes, and even prevents the freezing of a mill-head from the Whiteader, though the mill stream freezes every winter.

The chief rivers are, the *Tweed*, which first enters this shire at the point where the Leeder and the Tweed mingle
 16 their

their kindred floods. The *Leeder* and the *Whiteader* rise in Lamermoor, and carry to the Tweed the tributary waters of the Dy and the Blackader. The *Eden* and the *Leet* also contribute to swell the Tweed; and the *Ey* also, issuing from the Lamermoor, and being joined by its associate *Ale* or *Alan*, winds through the north-eastern parts of Berwickshire till it finds repose, not in the Tweed, but in the sea, at Ey-mouth, where it forms the most central part of Berwickshire. These riverets, with eighteen streams of less flow, are the constant drains of its superfluous moisture, and the usual sources of its abundant fishery.

Berwick. In the history of this shire, Berwick town is one of the first objects of just curiosity. This place, lying at Tweedmouth, on a dubious frontier, has an origin obscure, undignified, and recent. It was not mentioned by Bede, who closed his useful labours in 732; it was not noticed by Hoveden, when he enumerated the churches on the Tweed, in 882, but it was called *Nobilis vicus*, by William of Newbrig, during the age of David I. It was at this period the most populous and important town of North Britain. At the epoch of the Scoto-Saxon period Berwick had certainly become a town of the royal demesne; it was already a burgh when Earl David founded the abbey of Selkirk, while Alexander yet reigned in Scotland; and it became, during the reign of David I., one of the *quatuor burgerum* for holding a court of commercial jurisdiction under the king's chamberlain. Whether the town of Berwick gave rise to the castle, or the castle to the town, cannot be precisely ascertained: generally the castle, by furnishing shelter in rude times, produced a village under its walls, and there is reason to suspect that some of the Northumberland earls may have built a castle, of whatever strength, on the naked height, for his own accommodation. The castle gave protection to the town, and the town gave rise to the bridge across the Tweed, in those uncommercial times. Under the beneficent reigns of David and his immediate successor, Malcolm IV., Berwick flourished. Under William the Lion, it became a place of mintage.

The importance of this town was known to Henry II. of England; and from the captive William, in 1174, he wrenched Berwick and its castle, which he retained while he lived. The policy of Richard I. relinquished, in 1189, the castles of Rocksburgh and of Berwick specifically, with every claim which he could make on Scotland. Berwick now flourished awhile, but the fury of King John, as he retired through the Merse, carried his torch throughout that devoted town in 1216. Yet it was restored and improved, during the many years of peace,

peace, under the beneficent influences of the Scottish kings. In 1235 Gilbert, Earl Mareschal, on his marriage with Margery, the sister of Alexander II., came to Berwick, where he received his bride and celebrated his nuptials. In 1266 Edmond, the younger son of Henry III., paid a visit to the king and queen of Scots at Berwick, where Alexander III. celebrated his birth-day. The demise of Alexander III., in 1286, without issue; the competition for his crown, and the ambition of Edward I., brought infinite miseries on the contiguous nations. On the 31st of May 1291 the estates of Scotland, after sitting at Norham, in Northumberland, were adjourned by the English king, to meet him at Upsetlington, within Berwickshire, on the opposite bank of the Tweed. Here, in a few days, the estates of Scotland relinquished the independence of the nation to Edward, to enable him, as the pretended lord paramount, to decide the contest for the crown. He soon repaired to Berwick, and an universal homage to the English king was here required, under pain of forfeiture. On the 28th of June 1291, the mayor, corporation, and inhabitants of Berwick swore fealty to Edward in their parish church, and many of the people of Berwickshire and of other counties followed their example. Having thus obtained this important acknowledgment, which comprehended so many consequences, Edward returned to England in August 1291; leaving the ultimate decision, with respect to a dependant crown, to a subsequent year. He returned on the 1st of June 1292: a parliament assembled at Berwick on the 15th of October 1292, and on the 17th of November, in the great hall of the castle, Edward adjudged the disputed crown to John Baliol. A few feverish years of claims by the lord paramount, and of compliance by a dependant king, ended at length in avowed enmity. A treaty with France was sought by Baliol; and in March 1296 an inveterate war began. Edward, as if prepared for such an event, promptly marched to Berwick, which he took by assault, after a vigorous defence, where five thousand persons were slain. The castle of Berwick, which Sir William Douglas commanded, capitulated on the same day. Here Edward remained during fifteen days, fortifying this border town, and directing his ulterior measures. His army marched through the Merse to Dunbar, where the English generals obtained a victory on the 28th of April 1296, which decided the fate of Baliol and the issue of the war. Edward now over-ran Scotland, and, assembling a parliament at Berwick on the 24th of August 1296, received the homage of the kingdom. In the subsequent year, however, Wallace gained Berwick town, as one of the consequences of his victory at Stirling;

Stirling; but his important acquisition was of short continuance: the Scots retired from it as Edward again advanced to the Tweed; and he now placed a body of Gascons to garrison Berwick till the fortune of Scotland should be tried by a battle. He won the field of Falkirk, on the 22d of July 1298; yet the Scots continued unsubdued. In the subsequent year, they even besieged the castle of Stirling. In November 1299, Edward assembled an army at Berwick, in order to relieve that important strength; but his barons refused to advance through a rugged country during that gloomy season. After alternate successes and defeats, and the ill kept truces of various years, Edward proceeded, in 1305, to settle this litigated kingdom by his ordinance for the stability of Scotland, in virtue of which the castle of Berwick was left in the keeping of the chamberlain of Scotland, Sir John de Sandale, who was to appoint such a sheriff for Berwickshire as he could answer for; and the chamberlain was entrusted with the town, for the profits whereof he was to account according, to the extent which had been made by the king's command after its conquest. The coronation of Robert Bruce, on the 27th of March 1306, brought with it a fresh war, which was not less bloody than the former, but more fortunate for the interests of Bruce and the independence of Scotland. Edward I., with his dying breath, ordered the vigorous prosecution of hostilities; but Edward II., as he was opposed by the skill, and valour, and fortune of Bruce, carried them on without success. Berwick, after many changes, returned to its antient allegiance, under Robert Bruce, in 1318. On that occasion the town again became an important part of North Britain. That great prince marked the importance which he annexed to its acquisition by strengthening its defences and residing within its castle; and he granted considerable annuities out of the revenues of the town. In many ensuing conflicts, which were fought by various barons, Berwick town and castle were often lost and regained, but in 1482 they were finally ceded by the treasonous intrigue of the Duke of Albany, and never recovered by Scotland. The English now regarding Berwick as their own, made it the eastern mart of the Scottish trade in the time of Edward IV.; as it was by nature the issue of the products which the countries on the Tweed and Tiviot could spare. In 1551, Berwick was made a free town, independent both of England and Scotland. As King James was received with the warmest gratulations by the people of Berwick, he seems to have been equally studious to confirm to them their old privileges.

After Berwick had ceased to belong to North Britain, in
1482,

1482, this shire had no settled county town; Dunse sometimes, and Lauder often, but Greenlaw never, were used as the shire towns.

Lauder is the only royal borough within this county. As a kirk town, it is as ancient as the reign of David I., if not older. From him, however, Hugh Morville obtained Lauder, with its territory on the Leeder water. Like the other great settlers, Hugh Morville having obtained a district, built a castle, a church, a mill, and a brewhouse, for the convenience of his followers. Lauder has 339 houses, inhabited by 1760 persons.

Greenlaw, the county town, stands on the White-Ader, twelve miles from Lauder on the west, and twenty from Berwick on the east; it has 258 houses, and 1270 inhabitants.

Dunse was the seat of a kirk during the twelfth century: it stood originally on the summit of the hill, pleonastically called Duns-law; and which rises gradually 650 feet above the level of the sea. At the head of the plain which stretches from the mouth of the Tweed in the centre of the shire, stands the modern town of Dunse, having the Lamermoor hills on the west, north, and east. The houses are 449, the population 3157.

BUTE.

THIS county consists entirely of islands, forming part of the Hebrides, which will be noticed in a future page.

CAITHNESS.

THE county of Caithness forms the north-east corner of the island of Great Britain. It is a sort of irregular triangle, two sides of which are sea-coast, and the base or western side is the boundary of the county of Sutherland. The north-western part, which is the point of the triangle opposite to the base, is Dungis Bay Head, or Duncan's Bay Head, which has long been considered as the most northern part of the Island, and adjacent to which the celebrated John o'-Groat's house is placed. It is indeed said that, by late observations, Dunnet Head, in the same county, appears to be situated somewhat further to the north than Duncan's Bay Head. The north boundary of the county of Caithness, from the mouth of the river Hallowdale on the west, to Duncan's Bay Head on the east, consists of the North Sea and the strait called the Pentland

land Frith, which divides the main land of Scotland from the Orkney Islands. From Duncan's Bay Head, the coast proceeds in a direction tending upon the whole greatly toward the south-west; and here the county is bounded by the German Ocean. The boundary on the west, and partly on the south-west, is the county of Sutherland, as already mentioned. Caithness extends thirty-five miles from north to south, and about twenty-two miles from east to west.

The territory of the county is in general flat, but the country ascends gradually from the sea on both sides toward the county of Sutherland; and along that boundary it rises into considerable hills, where the Erse language is spoken, and which is considered as forming a part of the Highlands of Scotland; but except toward this western elevated boundary, which runs along the base of the peninsula of Caithness from sea to sea, the county may be considered as one of the most level tracts in Scotland.

Caithness, on account of the little distance of any part of it from the sea, can have no large rivers; but it is abundantly supplied with water. The chief of its streams are the waters of *Thurso* and *Wick*, the one of which runs into the North Sea or into Dunnet Bay at the town of *Thurso*, and the other into the German Ocean, on the east, at the town of *Wick*. The *Thurso* is noted on account of a most incredible draught of salmon taken at once on the 23d of July, O. S. 1743-4. The number amounted to 2560 salmon. They were taken in what is called the Cruive Pool, above the town of *Thurso*. The river *Wick* is augmented by two streams, one from the loch of *Toftingale*, and the other from the loch of *Watten*. Beside these, the county contains a variety of smaller streams, with great numbers of inconsiderable lakes. In the upland parish of *Halkirk* the lakes are no less than twenty-four, great and small. The most considerable are the lochs of *Cathel*, *Lochmore*, and *Lochmeady*; but the largest is that of *Cathel*. It is three miles long, two broad, if not more, very deep, and almost perpetually full to its farthest banks. In the parish of *Reay*, in the same quarter of the county, are also to be found a number of small lakes; and likewise in the more eastern part of the county, are *Swiney*, *Alterwell*, and *Wester Lochs*, beside a variety of others. In the parish of *Olrick*, the *Loch of Duran* is nearly three miles in circumference, but has been partially drained.

Underneath the rocks in this county are many caves, extending up a considerable way, and accessible only by water in boats. In these hideous caverns, as visitors advance, the light of the sun is gradually excluded, till at last they are involved

in utter darkness, and recourse must be had to torches before they reach the strand. Along the shelving sides of the caves many cormorants nestle and rest; and the report of a gun re-sounds with a most tremendous noise. In the season for seal-catching, the fishermen as silently as possible land in boats at the head of the caves on the beach, where they find numbers of seals, which they kill with bludgeons for their oil. In the egress from these caves the gradual light of the sun is enjoyed with double satisfaction. The magnificence of the scene is heightened by many rocky pyramids of immense height, rising at some distance out of the sea. Curious petrifications, some of them measuring from two to three feet in length, are found in some of these caves. On the estate of Hempriggs, in the mouth of a creek, one very remarkable rock forms a small island, about a gun shot in length and 24 feet in width, covered with green and open at the top, where sea-fowls nestle. It is supported by two oblong pillars completely intersected, so widely that a boat can easily pass through, and so regularly, that it appears more like the work of art than of nature.

On the northern side of the coast also, and indeed almost all around it, are a great variety of fantastic caverns, formed in all probability by the action of the waters of the tempestuous ocean. In the parish of Reay, on the shore a number of small caves are found; and in particular one with a strong natural arch, covered with green turf, in a level with the adjacent ground and leading over a chasm about forty feet deep, into which the tide flows.

The minerals of this county have not hitherto proved of much value. Whinstone, granite, and freestone are found; and lime and marl are not wanting. The only fuel which the country produces is peat; which, however, is in great abundance. Great hopes have at different times been entertained that coal might be obtained; a mineral resembling coal has indeed been discovered, which emits a hot vivid flame when burning, but without much dissolution of parts, or diminution of size, after it becomes extinct; so that instead of coal, it seems to be an earthy substance impregnated with volatile inflammable matter. In the burn of Hempster is found white spar of the purest quality. When put into the fire, a very slight degree of heat makes it throw out a considerable portion of phosphoric light, which gradually decays as the stone cools, and is again recruited as the stone is heated anew. When reduced to a powder, it puts on an exceedingly brilliant and beautiful appearance during ignition. In electrical experiments it is a non-conductor; nor does it seem soluble in acids. In the parish of Reay a slender vein of *red ore* has been discovered,

but in circumstances that afforded no inducements to work it. Iron ore is found in the same neighbourhood. Near Thurso are a small vein of yellow mundick, considerable quantities of white mundick, and a regular vein of heavy spar mixed with lead and chrystals three feet in breadth; but the mine has never been wrought. A copper mine, near the old castle of Wick, was once begun to be wrought, but the undertaking was dropped.

This county contains one royal borough, Wick, on the south-east coast, and also the town of Thurso on the north coast.

Wick stands on the estuary of a small river of the same name. The town is small, but it is the county town or capital of the shire, and consequently the seat of the sheriff-court. Along with Kirkwall, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tain, it sends a member to parliament.

The town of *Thurso*, on the northern side of the coast of Caithness, stands at the extremity of a spacious and beautiful bay, being the western part or branch of the Bay of Dunnet, where the river Thurso falls into the sea. It is irregularly built, containing no edifices of any note except the church, which is an old substantial Gothic building in good repair. A new town on a regular plan, is beginning to be seated on the banks of the river, in a pleasant elevated situation.

Among the antiquities of this county, one is most extensively known by the name of John o'Groat's house. The traditional history of John o'Groat is this: In the reign of James the Fourth of Scotland, Malcolm, Gavin, and John de Groat, (supposed to have been brothers, and originally from Holland,) arrived in Caithness from the south of Scotland, bringing with them a letter written in Latin by that prince, recommending them to the countenance and protection of his loving subjects of the county. They purchased or got possession of the lands of Warfe or Dungis Bay, lying in the parish of Canisby, on the side of the Pentland Frith; and each of them obtained an equal share of the property they acquired. In process of time their families increased, and there came to be eight different proprietors of the name of Groat, who possessed these lands amongst them; but whether the three original settlers split their property among their children, or whether they purchased for them small possessions from one another, does not appear. These eight families having lived peaceably and comfortably in their small possessions for a number of years, established an annual meeting to celebrate the anniversary of the arrival of their ancestors on that coast. In the course of their festivity on one of these occasions, a question

arose respecting the right of taking the door, and sitting at the head of the table, and such like points of precedence (each contending for the seniority and chieftainship of the clan), which increased to such a height as would probably have proved fatal in its consequences to some, if not to all of them, had not John de Groat, who was proprietor of the ferry, interposed. He expatiated on the happiness they had hitherto enjoyed since their arrival in that remote corner, owing to the harmony which subsisted among them. He assured them, that as soon as they began to split and quarrel among themselves, their neighbours, who till then had treated them with respect, would fall upon them, take their property from them, and expel them from the county. He therefore made a proposal to build a house in a particular form, which should be the property of the whole family, and in which every man should find himself the master, and which should satisfy them all with respect to precedence, and prevent the possibility of such disputes among them at their future anniversary meetings. They all acquiesced and departed in peace. In due time John de Groat, to fulfil his engagement, built a room distinct by itself of an octagon shape, with eight doors and windows in it: and having placed in the middle a table of oak of the same shape, when the next anniversary meeting took place, he desired each of them to enter at his own door, and sit at the head of the table, he taking himself the seat that was left unoccupied. By this ingenious contrivance, any dispute in regard to rank was prevented, as they all found themselves on a footing of equality, and their former harmony and good humour was restored.

The population of the county consists in 22,609 persons, who inhabit 4,573 houses. Wick has 3,986 inhabitants and 890 dwellings; and Thurso, with 786 houses, possesses 3,628 individuals.

CLACKMANNANSHIRE.

THIS county contains about 30,720 English acres, or nearly 24,975 Scottish acres. It is bounded on the south-west by the Forth, which divides it from Stirlingshire, and on the south-east by Fife. On the other quarters it is bounded by Perthshire.

The Ochils are the only hills, or rather mountains, of this district. They rise in general very abruptly from the valley, and form a fine defence against the north winds to the cultivated district of the county, which lies between them and the Forth. The most remarkable of the Ochils in this district

are, Denriat or Dunmyat, in the parish of Logie, and Buccleugh, in the parish of Tillicoultry.

The principal rivers of the county are, the *Forth*, the *Devon* or *Dovan*, and the *Black Devan*; there are also two lakes, called *Gartmarn-Dam*, and *Tullygurth-Dam*.

Clackmannanshire is extremely rich in minerals. South from the great ridge of the Ochils, the whole country seems to be a great field of coal, with its concomitant minerals, ironstone and lime. The mountains themselves also contain some of the most precious minerals. The rocks in the Ochils are composed of red and grey granite whinstone, and different kinds of schist; but among them veins have been found of copper and lead. In the western part of the district, on the estate of the Airthrey, in the years 1761, 2, 3, and 4, an attempt was made to work a silver mine. About fifty barrels of ore were obtained; four barrels were valued in London at 60*l.* sterling, but the work was abandoned as unprofitable. It is said that, at an early period of the eighteenth century, Sir John Erskine of Alva, by the aid of miners from Leadhills, discovered a valuable stratum of silver in the glen that divides the Middlehill from the Woodhill of Alva. It was first found in small strings of silver ore, which being followed conducted the workmen to a great mass of that metal. It had in a great degree the appearance of metallic, malleable, or what is called virgin silver; the produce was no less than 12 ounces of silver from 14 ounces of ore. The expence of the discovery did not cost above 50*l.* During 13 or 14 weeks the produce amounted to 4000*l.* weekly, and the proprietor is supposed to have obtained a sum equal to 40,000*l.* or 50,000*l.*, besides a considerable quantity of ore secreted by the workmen. When the great mass was exhausted, the appearance of silver gradually diminished, and the farther research was laid aside. About the year 1759 Charles Erskine, Lord Justice Clerk, having purchased the estate, a company was formed, which renewed the search around the old workings; and though some small strings of metal were discovered, they were not of sufficient importance to encourage the continuance of the work upon that level. A pit was therefore sunk below the spot from which the mass of rich ore was formerly obtained: and to facilitate the operation, the side of the hill was penetrated by a mine or level to carry off the water. In executing this part of the work, a large mass of ore was discovered, which at first was supposed to be silver, but upon accurate examination it proved to be the semi-metal called Cobalt, which is used in forming the blue glazings of China ware, and in giving to glass a blue colour. The cobalt of Alva was tried

at Prestonpans, and found to be in no respect inferior in quality to that with which Europe is in general supplied from the mines of Saxony. It was now ascertained that a considerable quantity of cobalt ore had been brought to the surface when the silver mine was formerly wrought, and had been suffered to remain for fifty years undisturbed among heaps of rubbish: thus an additional quantity was procured; but the mass of cobalt was speedily exhausted, as that of silver had formerly been, and it was found necessary to abandon the work. A register of the operations however is said to be in existence; and that the different metals found, besides silver and cobalt, were lead, copper, and iron, and also of arsenic, which always exists in large quantities united to the cobalt, and forming what is called a *mineralizer*, from which it must be purified before it can be converted into the blue powder used in the manufactories of porcelain. It may be proper here to add, that the late Lord Alva, one of the senators of the college of justice, from some of the silver ore which remained in his possession, caused a pair of communion cups to be made for the use of the parish of Alva, with the following inscription:—*Sacris in ecclesia S. Servani, apud Alveth, A. D. 1767, ex argento indigeno, D. D. C. Q. Jacobus Erskine.*

The hills to the eastward also, in the parishes of Tillicoultry and Dollar, contain similar appearances of valuable minerals. In the former of these parishes, upward of fifty years ago, in what is called the Mill-glen, a copper mine was wrought to a considerable extent by an English company. The thickest stratum was about 18 inches; and four different strata were found. After the work had been carried on for several years, it was abandoned as having become unprofitable. In the same hills much iron-stone is found and large quantities of the ball iron-stone. In the same mountains farther eastward, above the village of Dollar, lead and copper mines were at one period wrought; and silver ore has been found at Glencairn, to the westward of castle Campbell, but the quantity has not been sufficient to defray the expence of working it.

At the foot of the Ochils the coal field immediately commences; and throughout the whole district there are numerous collieries, from some of which considerable quantities of that mineral are exported. In consequence of the abundance of coal and iron-stone, an iron work has been erected at Sauchie in the parish of Clackmannan, under the firm of the Devan company. They chose a steep bank on the south side of the river Devan for the situation of their works, where there was a considerable quarry; which induced them to try an experiment, whether the excavating the quarry would not give them
more

more conveniency, and at a less expence than quarrying the stones and building their works at a small distance from it. They have two blast furnaces for the manufacture of pig-iron; and to give unusual steadiness and uniformity to the blast of their cylindrical bellows, they send the air through a vault of such size that it contains 10,000 feet of compressed air. Before quitting the subject of mineralogy, it may be added, that some strata of uncommonly pure fine clay have been found in this district.

There is no royal borough in this county.

The village of *Clackmannan* is the head place of the county. It stands on the ridge of a hill; its street is broad and regular enough, but the houses are mean.

The most considerable town in the county is *Alloa*; most of its streets are narrow and irregular. It has a good harbour, and a quay substantially built of rough hewn stone, and forming a creek, here called a *pow*, into which a rivulet falls. Above the harbour is an excellent dry dock, large enough to contain a ship of 40 guns. Above the dry dock is a ferry, at which complete piers have been built on each side of the river. The breadth of the water at full tide is about half a mile.

The return of population is in the county 2,164 houses, and 10,858 people. In *Clackmannan* 739 houses, with 2,961 inhabitants; *Alloa* 817 houses, and 5,214 people.

CROMARTYSHIRE.

THE county of Cromarty extends along the southern shore of the Bay or Frith of Cromarty. Its eastern part also is in contact, to a considerable extent, with that part of the German Ocean called the Moray Frith. The peninsula which includes Cromarty, together with a small corner of Ross-shire, is denominated the Black Isle, or in Gaelic, *Elander*. A long ridge of hills, or at least of elevated ground, covered with heath, runs the whole length of the district from south-west to north-east; and the remaining territory declines on the south toward the Moray Frith, and on the north toward Cromarty Frith. The whole peninsula has probably received the appellation of the Black Isle, either from the appearance which this elevated tract of heath gives to the whole when seen from a distance; or from the circumstance that, as this peninsula is almost every where in contact with the sea, the snows in winter do not remain long upon the ground; and hence this territory affords a sort of contrast to the neighbouring Highlands, whose mountains, during a longer period, are seen covered with a dazzling

whiteness. The peninsula is above twenty miles long, five miles and a half in breadth, and contains an area of 107 square miles, or 68,480 acres.

Its mineral productions are free-stone, granite, and marl. Coal has not been produced, although a substance somewhat resembling it is found.

Cromarty is the only place that can be called a town, and it is not entitled to notice: it has 417 houses, and 2,208 inhabitants; the return for the county is imperfect.

DUMBARTONSHIRE OR DUNBARTONSHIRE.

DUNBARTONSHIRE was anciently denominated the *Shire of Lennox*. This county is of a very irregular form, bounded by the river Clyde and Argyleshire on the west, by Perthshire on the north, by the counties of Stirling and Lanark on the north-east, and Renfrewshire on the south. It contains twelve parishes, *viz.* Dunbarton, Cardross, Row, Roseneath, Arroquhar, Luss, Bonhill, Kilmaranock, West Kilpatrick, East Kilpatrick, Kirkintulloch, and Cumbernauld. The last two are slightly separated from the rest of the county by a corner of Lanarkshire. The county contains 309 square miles, and consists of a mixture of natural pasture, wood, and arable lands. The first, including moors, peat mosses, and other places inaccessible by the plough, contains 46,739 square Scottish acres; the second, which is mostly not arable, 9,883; and the third, 68,594. Total 125,216 Scottish, or nearly 159,356 English acres.

The Kilpatrick hills originate near Dunbarton, and so far as this county is concerned, terminate at Lochlomond on the north-west, and Kilpatrick on the south or south-east. They form part of a remarkable ridge that, beginning near Dunbarton on the west, extends eastward to the vicinity of Stirling. After an interruption there, to give a passage to the Forth, the hills proceed under the name of the *Ochils* toward the Frith of Tay, where, after another interruption to give passage to the Tay, they again proceed north-eastward from Perth, under the name of the *Sidlaw hills*. The Clyde at Dunbarton passes their western extremity, or rather perhaps finds a passage across their tract, for beyond the Clyde the same range of hills seems to be continued westward by Greenock. In the north-western part of the county, the mountains of Arroquhar and Luss may be considered as the southern continuation of the Grampians, from which they are divided by Lochlomond on the east. Their precipitous and
rugged

rugged summits, many of which are 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, are for several months in the year perpetually covered with snow, and often hid among the clouds. Heavy rains have deprived many parts of them of soil; but in general they have enough for the luxuriant growth of some of the best pasture grasses for sheep, and they are ornamented with some of the rarest mountain or Alpine plants in Europe.

This county is too long and narrow to admit of its having many streams that rise and terminate within itself. A great part of its western boundary is formed by what is called *Lochlong*. Eastward from Lochlong another bay advances from the Frith of Clyde in a direction parallel to Lochlong. It is called the *Gairloch*, and is seven miles in length and two in breadth. Eastward from Lochgair and Lochlong is the celebrated *Lochlomond*, the finest and most beautiful of all the Scottish lakes. Whether for extent or variety and magnificence of scenery, it is probably not to be equalled by any lake in Britain. Its beauties have been the subject of much description.

In this lake they reckon about thirty islands, small and great. Most of them are finely wooded, but only about ten of them are of considerable size. The principal rivers connected with this county are the *Clyde*, *Leven*, *Eurick*, and *Kelvin*. None of these have the principal part of their course within this county, excepting the Leven, which is the outlet by which Lochlomond discharges itself into the Clyde.

The minerals of this county are coal, lime, and slate.

The only royal borough is *Dunbarton*; it was made so by Alexander the Second in 1221. It is built on the eastern bank of the Leven, which almost encircles it: it has a good harbour, where large brigs are safe in all weathers.

This town has 329 houses, and 2,541 people; the county has 3,482 dwellings, and 20,710 inhabitants.

DUMFRIES-SHIRE.

THE county of Dumfries is about fifty miles long from south-east to north-west, and about thirty-four broad from north-east to south-west. It is bounded on the east by Selkirkshire, Roxburghshire, and Cumberland in South Britain; on the south by Solway Frith and the stewartry of Kirkcudbright; on the west by that part of the stewartry called the Glenkens and the shire of Ayr; on the north by Lanarkshire, Clydesdale, and Tweed-dale. Toward the shores of the Solway Frith, and a part of Cumberland, it is comparatively low and flat, but in every other quarter mountainous. The mountains generally consist

consist of successive chains of high hills, giving their direction to the rivers.

The principal waters are the *Nith*, the *Annan*, the *Esk*, the *Orr*, the *Scarr*, the *Kenn*, and a water called *Crichup*; these are all running streams. There are, beside, several lochs, as *Loch-Orr*, out of which the river Orr rises, *Clofeburn-Loch*, and *Loch Alrick*. The three rivers, *Esk*, *Annan*, and *Nith*, divide the county into three great districts, to which these waters give their names; the most easterly district is called *Eskdale*, the middle one *Annandale*, and the most westerly *Nithsdale*.

The mineralogy of this county presents an ample field for investigation, but it has by no means hitherto been sufficiently explored. Gold, silver, lead, antimony, iron, free-stone, limestone, marl, slate, coal, and peat, have all been found; but the most valuable of them all for the purposes of practical utility, coal, has not hitherto been produced in such abundance as to render it, throughout the greater part of the county, a cheap article: it has only been obtained and wrought at the two extremities, the north-west and south-east.

This county contains four royal boroughs; Dumfries and Sanquhar in Nithsdale, and Annan and Lochmaben in Annandale. These four, with the royal borough of Kirkcudbright, in the stewartry of that name, send a member to parliament.

Dumfries being the capital of the county, as well as the most important in point of size and population, must be considered as the chief. It stands upon the banks of the river *Nith*, about nine miles above the place where the river discharges itself into the Solway Frith. The principal street extends full three quarters of a mile, the whole length of the town, in a direction parallel to the *Nith*. Toward the middle of the town, this street may be nearly one hundred feet wide. Besides this there are seven or eight streets and five or six lanes. The breadth of the town is, for two-thirds of its length, from a quarter to a third part of a mile. The houses, being built of brick and a red free-stone, have a light and airy appearance. The situation of the town rising gradually from the river, is beautiful and advantageous. It is neat and well built, well lighted and paved. The town-hall forms a part of a building erected about the beginning of the eighteenth century, and rather incommodiously placed in the middle of the high street. Under the hall are the weigh-house and town guard-house: this structure is also adorned with a steeple and spire. Nearly adjoining is the prison. The council-chamber, in a separate building, is decorated with portraits of King William and Queen Mary, and of the late Duke of Queensberry, the latter a fine painting. A House of Correction has been lately built.

There

There is also a theatre, and the inhabitants are accommodated with an elegant suite of assembly-rooms. There are two churches belonging to the establishment, besides chapels for episcopalians, methodists, antiburghers, and the sect of relief. In a square, nearly in the middle of the town, is a handsome Doric column, erected to the memory of the late Duke of Queensberry. The flesh market is a square, shaded around, with proper conveniences behind for slaughter. The Dumfries infirmary was opened in 1777, and the patients resorting to it have, since that period, been gradually and uniformly increasing. Dumfries, being a very considerable thoroughfare, has two principal inns, a coffee-house, and several taverns. Every Wednesday there is a weekly market for meal, grain, potatoes, butchers' meat, fish, poultry, eggs, coal, and various other articles. Saturday is also a market day for butchers' meat, fish, potatoes, and coal.—A singular custom has long existed here. The county hangman goes through the market every day with a *brass ladle*, or large spoon, pushes it into the mouth of every sack of meal, corn, &c. and carries it off full. When the farmers refused any longer to comply with this custom, the matter was tried before the courts of law, and the hangman was found to have a right to this perquisite of office.—There are also considerable cattle fairs. The old bridge of Dumfries is of very considerable antiquity: it consists of nine arches, measuring four hundred feet in length; its breadth within the parapet, 13 feet 6 inches; medium width, including the parapets, 16 feet 2 inches; height from the the top of the parapet to the water, 26 feet. This bridge, which crosses the river Nith, was built by the lady Devorgilla, third daughter of Allan Earl of Galloway, who died in 1269: she imposed certain tolls and customs to be levied on all cattle, fish, corn, and merchandize passing over. A new bridge has been built somewhat higher up the river than the ancient one.

The royal borough of *Sanquhar*, situated at the upper part of Nithsdale, is an inland village of no great importance. From time immemorial it was a borough of barony. Its old castle of Sanquhar is a picturesque ruin at a small distance south from the borough, situated on a high bank on the north-east side of the river Nith, which it overlooks. It was once the residence of the family of Crichton. It has been a building of considerable magnitude and extent.

The town of *Annan* is in general well built. A few sailors belong to it; and there are several sloops the property of the inhabitants. The fishery on the coast, and in the river, affords subsistence to a considerable number of people.

Lochmaben,

Lochmaben, which probably derives its name from seven or eight lakes or lochs in its vicinity, is supposed to be a very ancient royal borough. It is remarkable for some curious vestiges of antiquity, particularly two ancient fortresses which were situated in its neighbourhood. There is the site of a very ancient castle close to the town, on a noble situation between the castle and kirk lochs, surrounded by a deep moat and fosse.

Beside these royal boroughs, the county contains a considerable number of villages, of which *Ecclefechan* and *Lockerby* are the chief. There are also *Moffat*, and *Graitney*, more commonly called *Gretna*, which is situated at the southern extremity of the county, and has long been famous in the annals of matrimonial adventure for the marriages of fugitive lovers from England, which have been celebrated there. This is never done by the clergyman of the parish. Indeed, although no particular solemnity is necessary to the constitution of the marriage-contract any more than to any other lawful engagement in Scotland, and although any person may act as the celebrator of the marriage, to the effect of rendering the engagement completely binding, and the issue of it lawful children, capable of inheriting the property of their parents; yet severe statutory penalties may be inflicted upon the celebrator and witnesses of any marriage entered into without regular proclamation of banns. Hence irregular, or, as they are called in Scotland, clandestine marriages, are only celebrated by persons who have nothing to lose. The subject is thus spoken of in the Statistical Account of *Graitney*: "The persons who follow this illicit practice are mere impostors, priests of their own creation, who have no right whatever either to marry or to exercise any part of the clerical function. There are at present more than one of this description in this place, but the greatest part of the trade is monopolized by a man who was originally a tobacconist, and not a blacksmith as is generally believed. He is a fellow without literature, without principles, without morals, and without manners. His life is a continued scene of drunkenness. His irregular conduct has rendered him an object of detestation to all the sober and virtuous part of the neighbourhood. Such is the man (and the description is not exaggerated) who has had the honour to join, in the sacred bands of wedlock, many people of great rank and fortune from all parts of England. It is forty years and upward since marriages of this kind began to be celebrated here. At the lowest computation about sixty are supposed to be solemnized annually in this place. Taken at an average through the year, they may be estimated at fifteen guineas

guineas each; consequently this traffic brings in about 945*l.* a-year. The form of ceremony, when any ceremony is used, is that of the church of England. On some occasions, particularly when the parson is intoxicated, which is often the case, a certificate is given. The certificate is signed by the parson himself."

Dumfries abounds in places, whose names, connected with those of individuals, bring to mind many narratives and descriptions in the border tales and songs, now so deservedly popular. Among the persons are the celebrated Johnny Armstrong of Gilnockie, and the unfortunate Adam Fleeming, the lover of fair Helen of Kirkconnell lee. Another famous native of this county is the admirable Crichton, the account of whom by Sir Thomas Urquhart, furnished Doctor Johnson with the materials for an excellent paper in the *Adventurer*. Recent criticism has assailed the veracity of Sir Thomas Urquhart with unreasonable severity. The structure of his style, abounding as it does in quaint pleonasm, naturally leads to much hyperbole, which a reader of moderate understanding would correct and reduce to its proper standard, without imputing to the author the fiction of material facts. But the principal ground for discrediting this author is a genealogy of the Urquhart family, which is found in his works. "It is almost incredible," says Dr. Kippis, in the *Biographia Britannica*, "what a number of falsities he has invented, both with respect to names and facts. Perhaps a more flagrant instance of imposture and fiction was never exhibited; and the absurdity of the whole pedigree is beyond the power of words to express. It can only be felt by those who have perused the tract itself." The author of this censure seems to have forgotten, or not to have known, that Sir Thomas Urquhart was the translator of Rabelais, and that the thought of his imaginary pedigree is merely derived from that of Pantagruel in the romance of the witty Frenchman. Both were intended to banter those who invent, and to entrap those who believe, every assertion however gross and absurd, which favours of antiquity, and which has for its object to exalt particular countries and families.

The population return of Dumfries-shire is 11,031 houses and 54,597 inhabitants. The town of Dumfries has 1,275 houses and 7,288 souls; Sanquhar 478 houses, with 2,350 persons. Annan 471 houses has 2,570 individuals, and Lochmaben places 2,053 persons in 499 houses.

EDINBURGHSHIRE OR MID-LOTHIAN.

THIS county obviously derived its appellation from the city of Edinburgh, the chief town of the shire, the metropolis of the kingdom, but its origin has puzzled all the antiquaries, and has been proposed as an appropriate theme for scholastic dissertation. Edinburghshire extends from east to west 38 miles, from north to south 15 miles. These measurements give a superficies of 358 square miles, which contain 229,120 English acres, and the number of people being 122,954, there are rather more than 343 souls to a square mile.

The area of Edinburghshire may be considered as mountainous. The Pentland hills commence in Liberton parish, near the centre of the county, and extend in a south-west direction about 12 miles, stretching beyond the boundary of the shire into Peebles. The Caerketan Craig, which is situated at the northern extremity of the Pentland range, rises above the level of the sea 1450 feet, amidst other hills of great height. The Logan-house hill, which is situated toward the middle of the same range, and is the highest of the Pentland hills, has been found by the most accurate observations to be 1,700 feet above the level of the sea at Leith; and is surrounded by other hills of great height. The Spital hill, which is the most southerly of the Pentland range, rises amid other hills to a great elevation. The Pentland hills, in Glencrofs parish, like the other eminences of that mountainous tract, consist of different sorts of whinstone, and of other lapideous strata, which are commonly termed primitive rocks. Next to the Pentland mountains, the Moorfoot hills are the most conspicuous ranges. In Ratho parish, there is a small congeries of hills, which run from north to south about a mile and a half; and which are called Platt hills, from two hamlets that are situated on two of those mountains. Through the parish of Corstorphin, run the hills of this name, in a curving direction from south-east to north-west for an extent of two miles, and rise to an elevation of 474 feet above the level of the sea. Between Dalmahoy and the river Leith on the south, there are three hills in a line, which are called Dalmahoy Craigs. Between the parishes of Crichton and Cranston on the east, and Cockpen and Dalkeith on the west, is a continued ridge of hill, which stretches nearly six miles, from south to north; and which does not much obstruct the road from Edinburgh to Coldstream, that crosses its centre. Arthur's seat and Salisbury Craigs exhibit a wild and romantic scene of vast precipices and broken rocks, which from some points seem to overhang the

the lower suburbs of Edinburgh. In any other situation than the singular site of Edinburgh, the Calton Hill, which has scarcely been noticed by tourists, would be considered as an eminence of considerable height, as a rock of uncommon appearance, that supplies a walk of very diversified views.

Edinburghshire is well watered. The *Forth*, which bounds it on the north, communicates to this country many advantages of navigation, of food, and of fertilization. After the *Forth*, the *Esk* may be said to be the chief river, which is composed of two streams that unite their kindred waters below Dalkeith, and glide in a deep channel into the *Forth* at Inveresk. Several streamlets which flow from Cairn edge, a hilly range that separates Peebles from Edinburgh, form the commodious river *Leith*, which flows in a hollow channel between well-wooded banks. It afterwards receives the *Bevelaw Burn*, with some smaller rivulets; and, coursing in a north-east direction 22 miles, it glides into the *Forth*, where its issue, which was of old called Inverleith, forms the port of Leith. *Amon* river, which rises in Lanerkshire, and runs through the southern corner of Linlithgowshire, first waters Edinburghshire, where it is joined by the *Breich-Burn*. The *Gala-water* rises in the Moorfoot range: it is soon enlarged by the greater volume of *Heriot-stream*, when both take the name of the *Gala*: it is joined in its course by *Luggate-water*, with several streamlets, which drain the valley through which it glides. The *Gala* now pursues its southerly direction for 10 miles, when it enters Selkirkshire, and, after a wandering course, mixes its waters with the *Tweed*, which peoples it with the finny tribes.

This county abounds with minerals and fossils. Beds of pitcoal stretch across the country, from Carlops to Musselburgh, from south-west to north-east 15 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Limestone equally abounds, although it lies nearer to the hills. There is in this shire great plenty of freestone, and of good quality. Granite and whinstone are found in every parish. In Pennycuik there are found millstones, marble, and petrifications. A copper mine was laid open in 1754, at Lumphoy on Leith-water, six miles south-west of Edinburgh.

The mineral waters of this shire contribute to preserve or to restore the health of the inhabitants. St. Bernard's Well, on the rocky margin of the Leith-water, has been praised for its good qualities. In Cramond parish there is a mineral spring which is called the Well of Spa. In Mid-Calder parish there are sulphureous waters, like those of Harrowgate, and in the more elevated parish of Pennycuik are several chalybeate springs. Two miles southward of Edinburgh, is St. Catherine's,
or

or the oily well, which engaged the protection of King James, and is said to have cured cutaneous and other disorders of the people. As connected with the mineralogy of the district, an instance may be mentioned which occurred at the south-eastern extremity of the county in the parish of Stow, of a movement of a spot of ground on the 30th July, 1735. The former part of the season being exceedingly warm and dry, there was a great storm of thunder with hail and rain. At Wedderlaw, a hill in Overshiels ground, three miles up Lugate-water, the shepherd, sitting at a small distance, observed the face of the hill begin to move. The whole flock of sheep being gathered on that spot in consequence of the thunder, he immediately sent his dog to drive them off. By this means the greater part were saved, though some went with the break or piece of land, which was carried down to Gala, and a great quantity of the moss as far as Galashiels, which is reported to have served the poor people in that village for peats the following winter.

In the parish of Inveresk is a curiosity, which is thus mentioned by Maitland in his history of Edinburgh: "About three miles south-eastward from Edinburgh is situated Monk-town (vulgarly Mountain), so denominated from a priory of monks anciently there. At this place is a very great curiosity, denominated the *routing well*, which is a draw well in the yard of the mansion house, the area whereof, from the mouth to the water, is about thirty-five feet, and is so called from certain noises it makes preceding a storm, sometimes resembling the beating of a coppersmith's largest hammers, then a noise like a shower of hail falling into the water; and at other times, by a violent bubbling, raises the water above a foot higher than its natural level."

Musselburgh has derived its name from an extensive muscle-bank which lies in the sea below the town, and was probably the cause of its early population; as, even at this day, it affords a great relief to the poor inhabitants in times of scarcity, and at all times supplies the tables of the rich with a delicate variety. Musselburgh consists in some measure of three villages: on the east side of the Esk, adjoining to the sea shore, stands Musselburgh, properly so called, consisting of a broad well paved principal street, with some adjoining lanes. Above Musselburgh, to the south or more inland, is the village and church of Inveresk, which gives its name to the parish. On the western side of the Esk, along the sea-shore, Fisher-row is situated. It is a very long village; and here the harbour belonging to the whole is placed. The buildings are more uniform, but meaner than those of Musselburgh. Musselburgh is
what

what is called a borough of regality, that is, an incorporated borough, where the superior is not the king, as in royal boroughs, but a subject, who possessed in former times that extensive jurisdiction and those high privileges denominated regal, and which exalted their possessor to a sort of independence upon the head of the state, as the German princes at this day are independent of the Emperor. Musselburgh, before the Reformation, had for its lord of regality the Abbot of Dunfermline, and now holds of the Duke of Buccleugh as lord superior of the regality, and pays to that nobleman certain sums annually as quit-rent or feu-duty. The government of the town is vested in a council of eighteen members, ten of whom belong to Musselburgh, and eight to Fisher-row.

The name of *Dalkeith* is said to be derived from the Gaelic language, and signifies a plain situated between two rivers. If this be so, it is perfectly descriptive of the situation of the village, which stands on a narrow stripe of land peninsulated between the two rivers already mentioned, known by the name of *Esst*. The banks of these streams are here beautifully wooded and embellished with the seats of several families of the first distinction. The principal street of Dalkeith is broad and well paved; and the buildings, as usual in Scotland, are of stone, and substantial. It contains a grammar-school, which has long possessed distinguished reputation; and to which, on this account, as well as on account of the healthy and agreeable situation of the place, the sons of gentlemen are sent from different quarters of the country. This village is not at present remarkable for any sort of manufactures; and it is chiefly distinguished on account of its well known and much frequented market for grain, which is held every Thursday; to which are brought large quantities of all sorts of grain, and more especially of oats, not only from the neighbourhood, but also from the southern counties.

There are in the shire several considerable villages; as *Midcalder*, which is pleasantly situated near the river Amond; *Corstorphine*, supposed to have derived its name from the circumstance of a golden cross having been presented to the church by some French nobleman; *Croix d'or fin*; and hence Corstorphine. Others derive it from Gaelic words signifying steps through a wet place; a circumstance expressive of its situation, as it stands at the extremity of a morass, and in low wet ground. There are also *Cramond*, chiefly remarkable on account of its iron manufacture; *Pennycuick*, and the lesser villages of *Lasswade*, *Loanhead*, and *Gilmerton*.

Musselburgh has 1,469 houses and 6,604 souls.

Dalkeith contains 511 houses and 3,906 souls.

ELGIN or MORAYSHIRE.

THE county of Elgin, or Moray proper, forms the middle or principal district of the ancient county of Moray. Its boundaries, excepting along the shores of the Moray Frith, have not been determined by natural limits; as in the upper part of the county it is intersected in many places by districts belonging to the counties of Inverness, Nairn, and Banff. In general, however, its form resembles that of the county of Banff. It rests upon a northern exposure; its upper part towards the south consists of a portion of that very mountainous region which forms the head of the counties of Aberdeen, Banff, and Perthshire, and which gives rise to all the great rivers in the north of Scotland. As it descends on the north toward the Moray Frith, the country becomes more low and valuable. In general it may be described as bounded, therefore, on the north by that branch of the German Ocean called the Moray Frith; on the east and south-east by Banffshire; on the south-west by Invernesshire; and on the west by the counties of Inverness and Nairn. It extends about forty-two miles in length, and its average breadth is about twenty. Of this extent there are more than 200 square miles, denominated the Lowlands of Moray, lying between the Frith and a chain of hills which stretch in a direction nearly parallel thereto, at the distance of about eight miles from the shore. This may be described as a champaign country, though diversified by many gentle rising grounds; which being all either covered with trees or cultivated by the plough, form a landscape in general greatly superior in beauty, fertility, and riches, to any northward of the Grampian mountains. The remainder of this district, about 600 square miles in extent, must be regarded as a hilly country, divided into numerous fertile valleys along the banks of different streams, which all terminate in the Spey, Lossy, or Findhorn. The uppermost part of the district, called Brae-Moray, is occupied by extensive forests. The southern parts of this shire are hilly, but abounding in good pasture or overspread with forests; the northern, plain, rich, and fertile, producing wheat, rye, barley, and oats, and called proverbially the granary of the north.

The rivers of this county are the *Findhorn*, *Lossy*, and *Spey*; the lochs are called *Spynie*, *Cots*, and *Nabee*.

The mineral productions are free-stone, grey slate, limestone, and some very beautiful agate.

Elgin, the capital, consists of one large street built on the
Lossy

Loffy in a delightful situation. It was formerly the see of a bishop, and the stately ruins of its cathedral are still remaining.

The town of *Forres* is agreeably situated at the termination of a ridge of hills on a rivulet which falls into the water of Findhorn.

The population of this county amounts to 26,705. The houses are 6,126. Elgin contains 1,025 houses and 4,345 inhabitants; and Forres has 691 houses, the number of people being 3,114.

FIFESHIRE.

THIS county is on the eastern side of Scotland, and the eastern part of the county is washed by the German Ocean. On its southern side it looks down upon the Firth of Forth; on the north, the river Tay divides it from the counties of Angus and Perth; on the west, the boundaries are the counties of Perth, Kinross, and Clackmannan. The county of Kinross encroaches deeply upon its western side. From the unevenness of this last boundary, and from the manner in which it is indented by the surrounding waters, its form is irregular. By the most correct computation, its medium length from east to west is about thirty-six miles, and its medium breadth, from north to south, fourteen miles; and therefore the whole contents will amount to 504 square miles, or 256,970 Scots acres, equal to 322,560 acres English measure. The extreme length of the county, however, from the western point of the parish of Saline to Fifeness is upward of sixty miles; and from Kinghorn on the south to Newburgh on the north, is upward of thirty miles. Fife exhibits abundant inequalities of surface, but contains nothing that in Scotland deserves to be denominated mountainous territory. The chief hills are the Lomonds, by which it is partly separated on the west from Kinrossshire, but which are in no respect remarkable. In the eastern part of the county is Largo Law, very conspicuous from the opposite coast of the Lothians. The Norman Law, in this county, is also conspicuous. Several hills on the north-eastern part of the county give variety to its aspect. The general appearance of Fife is uncommonly beautiful, and it is populous along its shores; but on ascending from thence inland, it more or less suddenly assumes a considerable degree of bleakness of aspect.

From its peninsular situation, the inland waters of Fife cannot be great or important. The chief of its streams are the *Leven* and the *Eden*; the former in its course receives the

waters of the *Lochty* and the *Orr*: the latter is swelled by several small streams.

The lochs are numerous but not very considerable. The chief are those of *Lindores* and *Killconquhar*, *Lochgellies*, *Camilla-loch*, and *Lochfettie*.

Few counties in Scotland possess a more abundant supply of valuable minerals than Fife. Coal, lime, iron-stone, and free-stone, are found in a vast variety of places, and of the best quality; to these may be added whin-stone and marl, and the Lomond hills are believed to contain both lead and copper.

Fife is divided into the four districts of Cupar, St. Andrew's, Kirkcaldy, and Dunfermline. It contains no less than 13 royal boroughs; viz. Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, Burntisland, Kinghorn, Kirkcaldy, Dysart, Pittenweem, Kilrennie, Crail, Wester Anstruther, Easter Anstruther, St. Andrew's, and Cupar.

Of these, for its ancient grandeur, *St. Andrew's* is entitled to the pre-eminence. It stands upon a flat coast, from which the country gradually and agreeably ascends. It is situated on the eastern side of the county, overlooking the German Ocean, was once the capital of the Pictish kingdom, and afterward an episcopal and archiepiscopal see, but it now presents a spectacle ill according with its past fame and its antiquity. It retains as little of its former trade as of its magnificence. Its harbour, though guarded with piers, has suffered from the continual attacks of the ocean to whose whole force it is exposed.

The university will be noticed in another place. Of the antiquities, the tower and chapel of St. Regulus or St. Rule are still remarkably entire. There are also some few remains of monastic establishments, particularly the ruins of the chapel of the Observantines or Gray-friars, which stands on the south side of the south street, and seems, though small, to have been a handsome building. The priory of Saint Andrew's is an extensive ruin. The wall, by which it was surrounded, is still pretty entire; and a part of the houses belonging to the priors and sub-priors still remain. Adjoining to the priory are the ruins of the cathedral, which was long the metropolitan church of Scotland, begun by Bishop Arnold in 1161, and completed by Bishop Lamberton in 1318. The following measures shew it was a very large building, and the remains evince it was elegantly finished. Its figure was that of a cross, its length from east to west measured three hundred and seventy feet, the transept three hundred and twenty-two. Of this magnificent building nothing remains above ground but fragments of the east and west ends; the south wall of the choir measuring in length about one hundred and eighty feet,
and

and thirty in height. There is also a wall at right angles to the choir, possibly part of the south transept. The west end consists of a large gate with a jointed arch called the golden gate, probably from its having been once gilt; over it are a series of arches, above which was a large window. On each side of the gate was a polygonal tower, crowned with a conical top. That on the north side is fallen down. The east end has also two turrets crowned with pointed tops, between which were three windows, and over it a large one, nearly occupying the whole interval between the turrets. In the south wall is a range of windows with pointed arches, but in part supposed to have been the south transept. The windows are circular, and at the bottom there runs a range of interlaced semicircular arches. Excepting these fragments, this cathedral was in June 1559 demolished by a mob excited by the eloquence of the reformer John Knox. The castle of St. Andrew's, commonly called Cardinal Beaton's, stands on the sea-side, on a ridge of rocks north of the town, said to have been accessible only by a narrow passage. On the east and north, the ruins of the walls and the perpendicular rock below are a great height above the sea, which at high water beats against them. The south wall has fallen to the water's edge. Large fragments of the south-east wall have tumbled down inwards, and formed a steep bank, covered with grass and weeds, not easily passable. The great square tower is still sufficiently entire to give some idea of the elegance of the building. This castle was built in 1155 by Roger, bishop of this see, and greatly improved by the archbishop Cardinal Beaton.

Cupar is the county town of Fife, where the sheriff holds his courts. It boasts of great antiquity. The thanes of Fife, in the earliest times, held their courts of justice here. The town, in ancient days, depended upon the earls of Fife. The castle of Cupar was the chief residence of that powerful family for many ages. What was called the castle is now totally demolished, but the castle-hill is well known. After being long the residence of the earls of Fife, it became at last a national fortress. In early times it appears to have been used as a theatre. The Mount, formerly the estate of Sir David Lindsay, is in the vicinity of Cupar. What is called the Garliebank, being a piece of high ground south of Cupar, is remarkable for being the spot where a treaty was signed, on the 13th of June 1599, betwixt the Duke of Chatelherault and M. D'Oysel, commanding the army of the Queen Regent, and on the other part by the Earl of Argyle and Lord James, prior of Saint Andrew's, leading the forces of the congregation, that is, of the party who had taken arms in opposition to the

Roman Catholic faith, which the government imprudently attempted to support after it had become odious to a majority of the people.

The borough of *Crail* was formerly written Carle, Caryle, and Caraille. It stands upon a small bending of the shore, and consists of two parallel streets, extending east and west along the shore, which is steep and high. A priory once existed at Crail; but it appears to have been suppressed before the Reformation. The walls are still standing below the east end of the town close to the sea. In 1517, the church of Crail was made collegiate. It is still standing, and used as the parish church. Besides the high altar, it contained eight others dedicated to different saints. It was in this church that John Knox, by a vehement sermon having inflamed his hearers against the monuments of idolatry, led them to assail the superb cathedral of St. Andrew's.

Westward from Crail, are the royal boroughs called *Kilrennie*, and *Easter and Wester Anstruther*. They contain nothing remarkable, and are in truth only small villages or rather fishing towns.

Westward from Anstruther is *Pittenweem*, another royal borough. A great cave or weem, from which the borough derives its name, is situated half way between the beach and the ruins of an ancient priory. It consists of two capacious apartments. At the termination of the inner one is a well of excellent water. At the junction of the two apartments is a stair leading to a subterraneous passage, which conducted to the ground under the abbey; but the passage has been destroyed by the earth falling in. Another stair still remains, leading from the refectory of the abbey to the further extremity of the subterraneous passage. This passage was about fifty yards in length. The abbey or priory itself belonged to the canons regular of St. Augustine, and was dedicated to the Virgin Mary. A considerable remnant of it is still to be seen.

Dysart was erected into a borough in the beginning of the 16th century, but its original charter is lost. It consists of one principal street running along the shore from east to west, with some lanes. There was a priory of Black-friars anciently at Dysart. Their chapel, which had been long ruinous, was at length converted into a smith's forge.

Kirkcaldy stands on the sea-shore on the bay of that name. It has to the south an uncommonly fine soft beach, forming the shore of the bay. It has very extensive suburbs without the royalty, which together with itself form a large and populous town. The suburb on the west is called the Link
Town,

Town, from its having been built on links or downs along the coast. It is in the parish of Abbots-hall. To the eastward is the village of Path-head, which stands on elevated ground at the eastern termination of the bay of Kirkcaldy. It is only divided from the royalty by a small stream, over which is a bridge; and by a steep ascent, inconvenient for being used as building ground. It is again subdivided into Path-head proper, or Dunnikier, situated on the estate of Oswald of Dunnikier; and Sinclair-town of more modern date on the estate of Sinclair. Path-head is in the parish of Dyfart. In consequence of the narrowness, irregularity, and great length of the principal street of Kirkcaldy, it is extremely tedious and even teasing, for a stranger to pass through it. A kind of new town has of late been opened toward the north, the buildings of which are better suited to the present prosperous state of the inhabitants. The only public buildings worthy of notice are the town-house and the church. Since the union of the two kingdoms, this borough joins with the neighbouring boroughs of Dyfart, Kinghorn, and Burntisland, in sending a representative to the British parliament. The manufactures carried on here are chiefly those of coarse linen, bed ticks, chequered and striped linens, with a mixture of cotton in some of them, and low priced sorts of plain linen. The spinning of cotton has also been introduced; but the greater number of common people are employed in the different operations of heckling, spinning, dyeing, bleaching, warping, winding, and weaving. A branch of the Bank of Scotland is established here since the year 1785. Kirkcaldy has produced two men who attained to very deserved distinction in their respective ages, Michael Scott the supposed wizard, the Friar Bacon of Scotland, and Dr. Adam Smith, so well known in modern literature for his "Theory of Moral Sentiments," and his "Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations."

The royal borough of *Dunfermline*, at the distance of 16 miles from Edinburgh, stands three miles from the sea, and about 190 feet above its level. The city and castle of Edinburgh are seen from it, together with Arthur's Seat; and it commands a fine view of the fertile banks of the Forth, together with the Forth itself, sometimes concealed by an elevated shore, and here and there breaking out in openings. Dunfermline has long been remarkable for the manufacture of diaper or table linen. It has eight fairs annually, and a weekly market on Friday. The town is very ancient, and contains a considerable number of charitable establishments, though none of great extent. Dunfermline Abbey was a Be-

nedictine monastery, begun by King Malcolm the Third or Canmore, and finished by Alexander the First, surnamed the Fierce. Its remains are extensive, and shew it to have been an elegant building. The fraterly with its beautiful window is extremely striking. The abbot's house is adjacent. Part of the church is now used for parochial service. Several of the Scottish kings were buried here; and indeed, next after the celebrated Iona or Icolmkill in the Hebrides, the church of Dunfermline was the most common cemetery of the kings of Scotland. The remains of Robert Bruce, the avenger of his country's independence, lie here without an inscription or memorial to distinguish them.

The County of Fife also comprehends 59 villages. Of which Ely, Falkland, Newburgh, and Earl's Ferry, are royal boroughs: but they have no share in the election of members of parliament for Scotland; for this reason, that previous to the union, when attendance upon parliament was considered as a burdensome office, the inhabitants by petitions obtained an exemption from the duty of sending them.

Torryburn, toward the south-western extremity of the county, has a harbour, from which large quantities of coal are exported. There are also passage boats at Crombie-point, which run across the Frith to Borrowstounness. The harbour of Charlestown is chiefly employed for the exportation of lime; and that of Limekilns, in the neighbourhood, for the exportation of coal, and the importation of wood, iron, flax, &c. North Queensferry, situated upon a point stretching far into the Frith, is chiefly used, as its name implies, for passengers, and is situated upon the great road from Perth to Edinburgh. The Frith at this place is very narrow; hence this passage is preferred to the broader passages at Aberdour, Burntisland, Kinghorn, Kirkcaldy, and Dysart, particularly in stormy weather. The boats being flat-bottomed, draw little water; so that an easy conveyance can be had at almost all times of the tide, except at low or neap tides, or when contrary winds prevail. Some peculiarities concerning this port and its harbour deserve notice. It is called by Buchanan *Margarita Portus*, from the popular princess Queen Margaret, already mentioned, who had frequently used this passage in travelling to Edinburgh, and is supposed to have patronized the inhabitants. It was afterwards subject, during some centuries, to the Abbot of Dunfermline, who exercised over it jurisdiction in their courts of admiralty and regality, in which they have been succeeded by the justices of peace of the two neighbouring counties. It was afterward the property of the commendator of Dunfermline, who sold his rights in shares to a number of
private

private individuals; and these shares at present belong to the Earl of Roseberry, Preston of Valleyfield, Dundas of Dundas, and other gentlemen in the neighbourhood. One of the shares belongs to a boatman at the passage. These purchasers from the monastery have always continued to draw a fourth share of the passage-money and to supply boats. They usually grant an annual lease of their fourth share to one or more of the ordinary boatmen, and their rent is annually about 300*l*. The inhabitants of North Queensferry have uniformly consisted, from time immemorial, of operative boatmen without any intermixture of strangers, excepting that of late a blacksmith was brought thither by the innkeeper, who is also a boatman. They hold their houses in feu under the Marquis of Tweeddale, as the successor of the Abbot of Dunfermline. The inhabitants of this village have always held, from generation to generation, the passage or ferry as a sort of property or inheritance. On the evening of every Saturday, the earnings of the week are collected into a mass: one fortieth part of the whole is deducted for the public, and called *ferry silver*; one fourth is set apart for the proprietors of the passage; and the remainder is divided into shares, called *deals*, according to the number of persons entitled to a portion of it. One full deal is allotted to every man of mature age who has laboured during that week as a boatman, whether he has acted as master or mariner, or in a great boat or a yawl. Next the aged boatmen who have become unfit for labour, receive half a deal, or half the sum allotted to an acting boatman. Boys employed in the boats receive shares proportioned to their age from one shilling and sixpence up to a full deal or share. A small sum is also set apart for a schoolmaster, and for the widows of deceased boatmen. Nobody for ages became a boatman or sailor on this ferry unless by succession. That right was always understood by these people to be limited to the first generation. About 40 men act in the boats, and receive the full deal as sailors of mature age. The whole community, including these and the old men and boys, and the women of every age, amounts to about 200 individuals. It is kept down to this number by emigration; because a man of mature age usually receives no more, and sometimes less for acting as a boatman here than he could obtain by acting as a seaman in the public service, or in that of a merchant; and he is moreover excluded from all chance of rising in the world, a circumstance which of itself is sufficient to keep the number stationary. The community has accordingly existed for ages destitute of riches; but none of its members have been reduced to absolute poverty, or become a burthen upon the public;

public ; because by the fundamental laws of this society, the men of mature age have always systematically laboured for the past and the future generation, and have divided with them the bread which they earned. This ferry is the most frequented in Scotland, and a project has been lately set on foot to supersede the use of it by forming a tunnel under the Frith, a scheme by no means to be deemed impracticable.

In the parish of Kilconquhar is *Earl's Ferry*, one of the royal boroughs already mentioned, which have no share in the Scottish representation. To the westward of it is Kin-craig rock, remarkable for its caverns. One of them, called Macduff's cave, penetrates into the rock about 200 feet. It is supposed to be at least 160 feet in height, forming a stupendous natural arch. Some remains of a wall are to be seen in it ; and it is said to have been used as a place of retreat in times of danger. Here, according to tradition, Macduff Earl of Fife, who has been immortalized by the pen of Shakespeare, at first concealed himself after Macbeth's usurpation. Being unsafe here, the inhabitants of Earl's Ferry conveyed him over to North Berwick ; and upon the restoration he obtained the village to be erected into a royal borough, to be called Earl's Ferry, in memory of the service thus performed. Upon the authority of the same tradition, it is said that Macduff likewise obtained the following privilege from King Malcolm, that upon the application of any criminal, the inhabitants should have a right to convey him over the Frith in one of their own vessels ; and that if they did so, no other vessel should be allowed to put to sea in pursuit, till the criminal should be half way across.

There are many architectural antiquities and remains of encampments in this county ; among them are *Inchcolm Abbey*, in Inchcolm or the Isle of Columba ; *Rosyth Castle* ; *Loch Orr Castle* ; the *Castle of Eastern Wemyss*, commonly called Macduff's ; *Balgonie Castle* ; *Bethune's Tower* ; the *Tower of Clatto* ; *Balgonie Abbey* ; the *Abbey of Lindores* ; *Macduff's Cross*, and many others.

In the parish of Largo, in the middle of a plain, are three remarkable stones standing upright in the ground. They are rude blocks, without inscription, or any vestige of a character upon them. They are called by the common people the *three Lairds of Lundin*, or *Lundie*. It has been supposed that they are the grave-stones of Danish chiefs who fell in battle. In the same village, a great grand nephew of Alexander Selkirk, possessed his chest and musket, and a cup which he formed and used in his desert island. De Foe converted the history of Alexander Selkirk into the entertaining and instructive

tive story of Robinson Crusoe. Selkirk was born in Largo in 1676, and went to sea in his youth. In 1703 being sailing master of the ship *Cinque Ports*, Captain Stradling, bound for the South Seas, he was put on shore on the island of Juan Fernandez in consequence of a quarrel with the captain. In that solitude he remained four years and four months, from which he was at last relieved and brought to England by Captain Woods Rogers. He had with him in the island his clothes and bedding, with a fire-lock, some powder, bullets and tobacco, a hatchet, knife, bottle, his mathematical instruments and Bible. He built two huts of pimento trees, and covered them with long grass, and in a short time lined them with skins of goats, which he killed with his musket so long as his powder lasted (which at first was but a pound). When that was spent, he caught them by speed of foot. Having learned to produce fire by rubbing two pieces of wood together, he dressed his victuals in one of his huts, and slept in the other, which was at some distance from his kitchen. A multitude of rats often disturbed his repose by gnawing his feet and other parts of his body, which induced him to feed a number of cats for his protection. In a short time these became so tame that they would lie about him in hundreds, and soon delivered him from the rats, his enemies. Upon his return he declared to his friends, that nothing gave him so much uneasiness as the thought, that when he died his body would be devoured by these very cats he had with so much care tamed and fed. To divest his mind from such melancholy thoughts, he would sometimes dance and sing among his kids and goats, at other times retire to his devotion. His clothes and shoes were soon worn by running through the woods. In the want of shoes he found little inconvenience, as the soles of his feet became so hard that he could run every where without difficulty. As for clothes, he made for himself a coat and cap of goat skins, sewed with little thongs of the same, cut into proper form with his knife. His only needle was a nail. When his knife was worn to the back, he made others, as well as he could, of some iron hoops that had been left on shore, by beating them and grinding them on stones. By his long seclusion from intercourse with men, he had so far forgot the use of speech, that the people on board Captain Roger's ship could scarcely understand him, for he seemed to speak his words by halves. He died in 1723, mate of His Majesty's ship *Weymouth*, and bequeathed his property, which was considerable, to a female friend near Plymouth, whom he had married. He had no manuscripts, the
story

story therefore of his having been defrauded of them by De Foe is untrue.

To the county of Fife belongs the *Island of May*. It is situated in the mouth of the Firth of Forth, about six miles distant from Wester Anstruther, from which it lies in a south-east direction. This island in former times was tenanted by 14 or 15 families. Its inhabitants however are now reduced to a single family, or at least to those employed in attending a lighthouse which was built in the reign of Charles the First, upon a tower of 45 feet in height. The architect who erected it perished in a storm when returning home after it was finished, and some old women were burned as witches for having raised the tempest. In the night of the 23d of January 1791, a melancholy accident occurred at this light-house. A large heap of ashes which had long been accumulating round the foot of the tower burst into a flame. The persons attending the light-house consisted of the keeper, his wife, and five children, and two men who acted as assistants; they all lodged in the lower part of the tower. The wind carried the smoke of the burning cinders and ashes into the windows of the tower, from which it had no outlet, and the keeper and his family were suffocated, excepting an infant that was taken alive from the breast of the dead mother. The two assistants were for some time senseless, but they recovered.

The population of the county stands thus :

		Houses.		Inhabitants.
The county	—	17,831	—	93,743
St. Andrew's	—	781	—	4,200
Cupar	—	796	—	4,463
Kirkcaldy	—	362	—	3,248
Dunfermline	—	584	—	9,980
Falkland	—	490	—	2,211
Newburgh	—	267	—	1,936
Anstruther, Easter	—	195	—	969
Anstruther, Wester	—	69	—	296
Craile	—	344	—	1,652
Ely	—	135	—	730
Pittenweem	—	190	—	1,072
Burntisland	—	271	—	1,530
Dysart	—	846	—	5,385
Kennoway	—	338	—	1,466
Kinghorn	—	316	—	2,308
Wemyss	—	576	—	3,264
Aberdour	—	226	—	1,060
Inverkeithing	—	350	—	2,228

FORFAR

FORFAR OF ANGUS-SHIRE.

THIS county is bounded on the north-east by the Northesk river, which separates it from Kincardineshire; from the mouth of that river, proceeding south and west to the Frith of Tay, the German Ocean forms its boundary; on the east and south-east the Tay, from Barry sands to the quarry of Kingoody, is its boundary on the south; then it extends, in an irregular line, about forty miles, as far as the source of Isla, bordering with Perthshire on the west; and on the north it is separated from Aberdeenshire, for the space of twenty-six miles, by the Grampian mountains, which here are named the *Binnchinnans*. The extent of the whole, from the eastern coast to the Grampians, is about forty-eight miles; and from Mount Petie, on the borders of Perthshire, to the mouth of the Northesk river, about forty-two. Its average length however, from north to south, is thirty-two miles, and its average breadth, from west to east, twenty-nine miles. It contains 928 square miles, or 467,415 Scottish, equal to 593,920 English acres.

The north-western half is mountainous, consisting of a section of the Grampians, and generally inhabited by Highlanders; the south-eastern is more level, and inhabited by Lowlanders. The mountains are covered with heath or pasture, and shaded with forests, the Lowlands tolerably well cultivated and not infertile. The coast is abrupt and rocky, and broken into numerous natural caverns. It supports great numbers of black cattle and sheep, produces less wheat than oats and bier, and yields good crops of potatoes. The eastern parts, from their maritime situation, are subject to thick fogs, which prove injurious to the artificial plantations.

The principal rivers are the *North Esk* and *South Esk*, *Isla*, *Dighty*, and *Lunan*. The chief lakes are those of *Forfar*, *Restennet*, *Rescoby*, and *Balgueres*.

The minerals are lime, freestone, marl, a little lead, and a vein of silver too inconsiderable to pay for working.

This county contains five royal boroughs; viz. Dundee, Arbroath, Montrose, Brechin, and Forfar. Of these *Dundee* is the most important. It stands on the north bank of the river Tay, about twelve miles from its mouth, is large and well built, consisting of several streets, diverging in every direction from the market-place or high-street, which is a spacious square 360 feet long by 100 feet broad. The town is well supplied with water, and the harbour is advantageously situated for trade, admitting easily trading vessels of the greatest burden.

burden. The principal and staple manufacture is linen of various kinds. Several cotton works have been attempted without success. The Dundee coloured threads have been long in high repute. Dundee with Perth, Forfar, St. Andrew's, and Cupar in Fife, sends a member to parliament. On an eminence, near the street called the Cowgate, the incorporated trades in conjunction with the kirk-session, have built St. Andrew's church, with a fine spire 139 feet high, exhibiting one of the purest specimens of modern architecture. There is a neat entry to the church by a broad gravel walk, with grass-plots and shrubberies laid out in a most excellent style. This town was the birth place of Hector Boece or Boethius, who was principal of King's college in Aberdeen. Of him Dr. Samuel Johnson remarks, that "he may be justly revered as one of the revivers of elegant learning."

Aberbrothock or *Abroath*, situated at the estuary of a stream called the Brothock, is a royal borough of great but unknown antiquity. The town stands on a small plain, surrounded on the west, north, and east sides by eminences in the form of an amphitheatre, commanding an extensive prospect of the Friths of Tay and Forth, and the elevated parts of Fifeshire and Lothian. The body of the town consists of one street nearly half a mile in length, running north and south from the sea, and another on the west side of smaller extent. The harbour is small, but commodious, and can be taken by vessels in a storm, when they cannot enter any of the neighbouring ports. It is entirely artificial, being well sheltered from the sea by a long pier; and during storms the inner harbour is so secured by wooden gates, that the vessels lie in the smoothest water. The most interesting object here consists of the venerable ruins of the abbey, which convey a high idea of its ancient magnificence. It was built with a red stone found in the neighbourhood, which has not proved so durable as that found on the Tweed. Part of the abbot's house is still standing and inhabited; some of the ancient floors are remaining, and several handsome carvings in oak. This abbey was founded by William the Lion, and dedicated to Thomas à Becket.

Montrose stands on a sort of peninsula formed by the river South Esk and the German Ocean. The town is neatly built, consisting of a fine spacious main street with bye lanes, and is justly accounted one of the first provincial towns of its size in Scotland. It is a very gay place, distinguished more by the residence of persons of opulence and fashion than of commerce and industry. It has its theatre, monthly assemblies, and other places of amusement; and annual races which are well attended. One of the oldest houses in the town, now converted

into a hotel, is noted for being that in which the celebrated Marquis of Montrose was born, and in which the Pretender slept on the 13th of February 1716, the night before he escaped to France.

Brechin also stands upon the South Esk, about eight miles above Montrose. The town consists of a handsome street with bye lanes, and is well supplied with water by means of leaden pipes. The manufacture of linen and sail-cloth is carried on to a considerable extent. The principal ornament of the vicinity is Brechin castle, a modern edifice, which is much admired on account of its romantic situation. The cathedral church is an ancient and handsome Gothic pile. It is in length 160 feet, in breadth 61. The eastern part is ruinous; the western part now serves for the parish church.

Forfar, on account of its situation, as being pretty central, is the place where the sheriff holds his courts, and where public meetings are convened. Hence it is considered as the capital of the county, and gives its name to the whole. It stands low with respect to the circumjacent ground on every side excepting the west, but it is high in comparison to the general level of the county. The streets are irregular, but many of the houses are neat and well built. The church is elegant and commodious, situated nearly in the centre of the town. A considerable manufacture of Osnaburghs and coarse linens is carried on in Forfar, and the making of coarse shoes, or brogues as they are called, employs a considerable number of hands.

In this county are 21,022 houses, and 99,127 souls.

The chief towns are as follow :

Dundee 6,952 houses and 26,084 persons; Aberbrothock 625 dwellings and 4,943 inhabitants; Montrose, houses 1,079, people 7,974; Brechin 772 houses and 5,466 souls; and Forfar 739 dwellings with 5,165 people. Kirriemuir, which is a considerable borough of a barony, contains 949 houses, and has 4,421 people; there is also a town called St. Vigearus, which for 4,243 inhabitants has 797 houses.

HADDINGTONSHIRE or EAST LoTHIAN.

THIS county derived its appellation from the shire town, which name is said to be of Saxon origin, but of difficult etymology. The area of this county seems to have been called *Bernicia*, from the abdication of the Romans till 1020, when the whole district was ceded by the Northumbrian earl to the Scottish king. From that epoch, the ample country lying
along

along the sea and the Forth, from the Tweed to the Avon, was denominated by the Saxon settlers, from their native language, Lothian, with an allusion to its peculiar jurisdiction on a litigious frontier. Lothian was still known as a country distinct from Scotland in the reign of David I. During that of his grandson William the Lion, the Lamermoor range became the southern boundary of Lothian. Soon after, both in popular tradition and in public proceedings, the area of this shire was called East Lothian, in order to distinguish it from Edinburghshire or Mid Lothian, and from Linlithgowshire or West Lothian.

The western declivity of the Lamermoor equally forms in this shire as the eastern does in Berwickshire, a considerable district, which affects its atmosphere and produces many of its streamlets. At the west edge of this vast moor, which has always been of importance for its pasturages, stands Lamer-Law, which probably gave a pleonastic name to the whole ridge. From Lamermoor, the face of the whole country has a general inclination to the northward. The surface of this shire is broken into many inequalities by its sudden ascents and frequent declivities. Yet the county cannot be said to be mountainous, and its hills do not rise to great elevations, though Spartleton hill, said to be one of the highest in the range of Lamermoor, rises 1615 feet above the level of the sea. Yet, though most of the western declivity of this unfightly ridge is occupied by alternations of moor and moss, there is much of a better quality in the intervals of the hills, where the plough performs its usual operations, and the sower's hand produces a regular rotation of crops.

The greatest part of the shire lies upon a bed of granite. The whole county is full of pit coal: this useful mineral abounds in the parishes of Tranent, Ormiston, Gladsmuir, in Prestonpans, and in Inveresk; here was it dug as early as the beginning of the thirteenth century, if not earlier. Limestone abounds in every part of this shire, and it would be difficult perhaps to find any place within it which exceeds six miles from some limestone rock. It has marl throughout in equal abundance. At the entrance into the harbour of Dunbar, which is very narrow, between two rocks, is a production of nature which resembles the Giant's Causeway in Ireland. On the west side of the harbour is a promontory stretching out about a hundred yards to the north and about twenty yards wide, having the sea on each side of it on the flow of the tide. This rocky head is a natural curiosity of an uncommon kind, being composed of a red stone which is not limestone but rather a very hard free-stone resembling, on both sides, the Giant's Causeway. This
peninsular

peninsular rock is called, by the people of Dunbar, the isle. Freestone seems to abound in every part of this shire; near Barra, and in Pencaithland and Tranent, quarries of excellent quality are wrought for daily use. Iron ore abounds in Humber and Keith, and in Oldhamstocks; and there is an iron-work at Fawside in Tranent. In this shire are several mineral springs, and about a mile from the shore of Haddington, facing the village of Castleton, lies the Bass, a rock of great height; on the south side, the top appears of a conical shape, but the other overhangs the unfathomable sea in a most tremendous manner. This naturally is the annual resort of water-fowl, which find the Bass a commodious breeding place: among these the most numerous are the gannets, or Solan geese, whose young are sold for the benefit of the proprietor of the rock. The next in number are the kittiwakes, a species of gull, which have derived their singular name from their constant cry. Here, also, Ray saw the scout, the scart, and a bird called the turtle-dove, whole footed and the feet red. This perpendicular rock is celebrated in the *Polemomiddinia* of Drummond, as “the *Solungoosifera* Bassa.”

Haddingtonshire cannot boast of being well watered. It seems to have no lakes, either for ornament or use. The *White-Ader*, which circulates through Berwickshire with so much convenience and beauty, rises in Haddington. The *Tyne*, which springs from the moor of Middleton, in Edinburghshire, “flows tortoise like” through this county. From the parishes of Crichton and Cranston it enters this shire, and holding its devious course from west to east, washes the county town and falls into the Firth at Tynningham, after receiving in its progress *Salton water*, *Coalstown waters*, and several rills. The *Tyne*, however, is subject to floods, and has often damaged the shire town on its banks by its torrent. There are not any other streams in this shire which merit the appellation of brooks, but however penurious nature may have been in supplying this shire with lakes and riverets, she has abundantly made amends by surrounding the whole northern shore by the sea and Forth.

The principal places are Haddington, Dunbar, and North-Berwick.

Haddington, the shire town, lies on the *Tyne*, is well built and paved, agreeably situated, and surrounded by numerous seats and mansions. It has 711 houses and 4,049 inhabitants.

Dunbar consists principally of one street, broad and handsome. The harbour is small but safe, and it takes some share in the Greenland fishery. The castle of Dunbar has often

furnished a theatre for warlike exploits in earlier times. The ruins of this fortress, which is seated on a rock above the sea, is the Dun-bar, or strength upon the summit, of the ancient people. As the land in this vicinity was given by Malcolm Canmore to Cospatrick, the expatriated Earl of Northumberland, we may easily suppose that he here strengthened a castle, which was completed by his warlike and opulent successors, the earls of Dunbar and March. The sieges which it successively sustained, by the most warlike princes, are satisfactory proofs of its strength from its natural position and artificial works. The foul deeds and flight of James, Earl Bothwell, induced the parliament of December 1567 to direct its demolition. The neighbouring town derived its existence and its name from the castleclated cliff. The inhabitants of Dunbar 3,951; they have 717 houses.

North Berwick is a small town pleasantly built on a hill and shaded with trees. It has a small harbour protected by a pier, and enjoys a share in the salt and coasting trade. It is remarkable for its malt liquor. The houses are 270; the inhabitants 1,583.

Near Berwick is *Prestonpans*, memorable for the defeat of the royal troops, under Sir John Cope, by the young Pretender. In the same neighbourhood are Carberry-hill and Pinbie, two places still more remarkable in the earlier period of our military history.

This county contains a population of 29,986; the number of inhabited houses is 6,256.

Tranent, which is a considerable village, has 651 dwellings, and 3,046 people.

INVERNESS.

THIS is the most extensive shire in Scotland, stretching from the eastern to the western sea, eighty miles in length, and in the widest part nearly the same in breadth. Its subdivisions are Inverness Proper, comprising two-thirds of the shire to the north, and Lochaber and Badenoch the remaining third on the south. To this shire also belong several of the western islands. This extensive region, which forms the most wild and rugged portion of the highlands, presents only the appearance of a vast surface of mountains; some covered with heath and verdure, or feathered with groves, woods, and forests; some dark, rugged, and desolate, intersected by extensive lochs or wild and romantic ravines, glens, and valleys, watered by innumerable Alpine streams. From this description, however, must

must be excepted the Airds, a small district on the north, between the Nefs and the Beauley, which is cultivated, inclosed, and produces oats and bier, the grain adapted to this northern soil.

A singular feature of this county is the extensive glen or valley called Glen-more-na-h'Alabin, or the great glen of Albion. This glen, which intersects the county from sea to sea, is seventy miles long, and in some places scarcely a quarter of a mile wide, bounded on each side by a range of steep and rugged mountains, and watered, or rather filled, for nearly two-thirds of its length by lochs *Nefs*, *Lochy*, and *Eil*. The first of these is above twenty miles long and one hundred and forty fathoms deep; the second, eight miles in length. The facilities afforded by this valley have given rise to the Caledonian canal, which will be noticed hereafter. Loch Nefs never freezes, while another loch called *Loch Wain* is always frozen. Connected with, or originating from, these lochs, are the rivers *Nefs*, *Spey*, *Garne*, *Morrison*, *Eimerie*, and *Coiltie*. There is also the *Beaulie*, composed of the three lesser streams, *Farrur*, *Camch*, and *Glasf*. There are several other lochs.

The county contains limestone, porphyry, and granite, and some lead and silver have been discovered. The mountains in many parts are clothed with natural forests of the finest pine; but its riches are its flocks and herds of cattle, numbers of which are annually sent into the southern parts of the kingdom. Its heaths and wilds abound with deer and every species of game, and its lochs and inlets with fish.

In Glen-roy, a valley near Fort Augustus, are several terraces on roads running on both sides along the declivity of the opposite mountains, thirty feet wide and nearly nine miles in length. This extensive work, apparently without any use, has long perplexed the antiquaries, but the better opinion seems to be that it is a production of nature not of art. In other parts of the shire are various old buildings and antiquities, but the great attractions are the wonderful features of nature, in which are comprized the *falls of Foyers* and the mountain called *Ben-nevis*, 4,370 feet in height.

So secluded and impervious a district cannot be supposed to contain any large communities. The principal and almost the only extensive place is *Inverness*, a neat town, pleasantly situated on the Nefs. Being a military station, and the great centre of almost all the inland commerce in the north of Scotland, it is flourishing, cheerful, and polite. Its fine harbour admits vessels of two hundred tons at high tides; and vessels of five hundred tons can approach within a mile at the lowest

ebb. Some branches of the linen, woollen, cotton, and hemp manufacture are carried on in the town and its neighbourhood.

Invernessshire, according to the returns, contains 74,292 souls. The number of houses is 14,516.

Inverness town with its dependencies, forming one parish, has 1,431 houses, and 8,732 inhabitants.

KINCARDINESHIRE,

CALLED also the shire of Merns, is in length about thirty, and in breadth twenty miles; and contains 191,576 Scottish, or 243,444 English acres. It is bounded on the east by the German Ocean, on the north by Aberdeenshire, and on the south and west by the county of Angus.

The western side of this county, which is a continuation of the Grampians, is hilly and covered with heaths and pasture, though the hollows are cultivated; the eastern parts are more generally level, and fertile in every species of corn. Over the whole country are scattered numerous plantations of firs and other trees raised in recent times, but those in exposed situations on the eastern side, like all the districts on this coast, are subject to the canker and moss. The shire has been much benefited by the spirit of agricultural improvement which has animated the country gentlemen; and the cottages of the peasantry shew far more neatness and attention to comfort than is usual in the distant parts of Scotland.

The principal waters connected with this county are the *North Esk* and the *Dee*. The *Dye*, the *Cowie*, the *Carron*, the *Bervie*, and the *Luther*, are streams of inferior note.

The minerals are limestone, some valuable pebbles, and fine jasper; the coast has large rocks of what is called plum-pudding-stone, and in the eastern parts of the county are quarries of granite.

Here are few places worth particular attention.

Inverbervie, or *Bervie*, is a royal borough; it has a harbour and a bridge; it was a place of some note, but now the whole parish in which it stands has only 210 houses, and 1,068 souls.

Kincardine, once the county town, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable village.

Stonehive, or *Stonehaven*, the head burgh of the shire, is a small town built at the foot of the cliff on the shore of a little bay. It has a manufacture of sail-cloths and osnaburghs, and knit stockings. Its harbour is covered with a pier, but is only capable of receiving small vessels even at high water.

Laurencekirk,

Laurencekirk, lately a petty hamlet, has risen into a pretty town, with a right to elect magistrates, a yearly fair and weekly market, by the patronage of its proprietor Lord Gardenstone. He has established manufactories of linen and cambrics, and removed the oppressive feudal privileges, which tended to shackle agriculture.

Among the antiquities of this country is a cairn or rude monument of stone of uncommon size, near a village called Fetter Cairn. Near Stonehaven are the romantic ruins of Dunnottar Castle, the seat of the Keiths, Earl Marshals of Scotland.

Urie, near Stonehaven, was the birth place of the celebrated Barclay the apologist of the quakers; and the parish of Arbuthnot gave birth to the witty physician of that name, the friend and fellow-labourer of Pope and Swift.

Kincardineshire contains 26,349 souls. The number of houses is 5,990.

KINROSS.

THIS small shire is almost circular, and about 30 miles in circumference. The country which extends from the Ochil hills to the German ocean, with the Tay on the north-east, and the Forth on the south, was in ancient times called Ross. The appellation resulted from its insular situation. This word in the Gothic or Pictish language, signifies a peninsula: hence Kinross or Keanross, as it was formerly spelled, signifies the head of the peninsula; Culross, the back of the peninsula; and Muckross, the old name for Fifeness, the point or snout of the peninsula. By this general name it continued to be called, until in later times, as Buchannan informs us, "*Reliquum agri, ad Forthum usque, ambitio in varias præfecturas dissectuit, Clackmannanam, Culrossianam et Kinrossianam.*" The last of these, about the year 1426, was divided into the two counties of Fife and Kinross; and at the revolution, Kinross being thought too small a county as it then stood, was enlarged by the addition of Orwell, Cleish, and Tillibole; which parishes before that period had belonged to the county of Fife. But although these are two distinct counties, and are separately represented in parliament, they are both comprehended in the sheriffdom of Fife. Kinrossshire is bounded on the east and south by Fifehire, and on the north and west by Perthshire. The surface of the county is greatly varied. The middle portion, which in point of extent comprehends about one half, occupies a situation comparatively low, and may be considered as a kind of plain or

flat, slightly varied with swells of gentle rising grounds. The sides of the hills which face the central part of the county, are for the most part excellent pastures which generally retain a beautiful verdure; patches of moor-land occurring only near their summits. The aspect of the whole shire is open and exposed, there being little of it inclosed, and many of the inclosures formed not of hedges but of stone-walls.

Of the waters of this county, that which merits attention in the most remarkable degree is the lake called *Lochleven*, on the banks of which, at its upper and western extremity, stands the town of *Kinross*. It is a noble expanse of fresh-water, of about 15 miles in circumference. It is remarkable for producing trout of a large size, and with flesh of a pink or reddish colour, approaching nearly to the taste and appearance of salmon. *Lochleven* receives the water of three small rivers and several streamlets. *Gairny*, the southernmost stream in the county, is formed of two branches. One of them has its origin in the united parishes of *Fossaway* and *Tilliebole*, at no great distance from the *Devan*; the other, its south branch, rises about the west end of *Cleish* parish, or the eastern point of *Fossaway*. The next river to *Gairny* is *South Quech*, which takes its rise among the *Ochils*, as does *North Quech*, another principal stream or water, in this county. *Lochleven* gives rise to the river *Leven*, which passes through a considerable part of *Fife* into the sea, forming the largest water of that county. Besides *Lochleven*, there are several small lakes in the county; of these there are four in the parish of *Cleish*. The largest is about one mile and a half in circumference; the rest are much smaller.

This county produces whinstone, limestone, and marl; it has no coal, but the deficiency is supplied by peat.

Among the most striking antiquities is the castle of *Lochleven*, a fortress of which the time of foundation cannot be ascertained; it is celebrated for a siege which it endured in 1334, but more for having been the place of imprisonment of the unfortunate *Mary*.

Kinross, which is the central and principal town and capital of the county, is the seat of the sheriff, justice of peace, and baron-bailie courts. The general appearance of the town is rather mean; but it is delightfully situated on an extensive plain on the western margin of the beautiful lake of *Lochleven*. The other villages are trifling except that of *Miln-a-thort*, vulgarly pronounced *Mills of Forth*, from a rivulet upon which are several mills, and also a distillery. It is remarkable, though a small village, for having no less than three places of worship beside the parish church. They belong to the

the anti-burghers and Cameronians. The principal manufacture in this county is that of coarse linens, commonly called *filefias*. In the parish of Portmoak is a parchment manufacture. The distillation of whiskey is also carried on to a great extent.

The county has 1,409 houses, and 6,725 inhabitants, of which 390 dwellings, and 2,124 persons belong to the town of Kinross.

KIRKCUDBRIGHT.

THIS may properly be termed a stewartry, forming the eastern part of the shire of Galloway. In ancient times Galloway appears to have comprehended, not only the shire of Wigton and the stewartry of Kirkcudbright, but also the greatest part, if not the whole, of Airshire. It had its own princes and its own laws. It acknowledged, however, a feudatory dependence on Scotland.

The stewartry of Kirkcudbright is bounded on the south by the Solway Frith, which divides it from England; on the east by Dumfries-shire; on the north by that county and Ayrshire; and on the west by the latter county and the shire of Wigton. A part of its eastern boundary is formed by the estuary of the river Nith; and a considerable part of its western boundary consists of Wigton bay, which advances to a considerable distance inland. The stewartry contains nearly 864 square miles, or 440,081 Scottish acres.

The whole of this country is hilly, and the south western and western parts rise into mountains of the second rank. The high grounds are covered with heaths and pasture which maintain innumerable herds and flocks, the glens with which they are intersected, are fertile and agreeable, watered by lively rivulets and adorned with neat seats and mansions.

The principal river is the *Dee*, which rising in the mountains near Carrick, winds through an extensive valley, and entering the Irish sea, forms the harbour of Kirkcudbright. Its other rivers are the *Orr*, *Urr*, or *Whurr*, the *Ken*, the *Fleet*, and the *Cree*; there are also several lochs, none of which are of much importance.

A natural production found toward the eastern coast of this stewartry, deserves notice. It is called the *sea anemone*, the animal flower, or water-polypus, and considered as the link that connects the animal with the vegetable system. It does not possess a locomotive faculty; and its organs are too imperfect to entitle it to be ranked with animals; but it appears to have

somewhat more of *sensation* than can be ascribed to a merely vegetable substance: like some of which, however, it is reproduced from any part cut off. The form of these polypuses is elegantly and pleasingly diversified. Some are found resembling the sun-flower, some the hundred-leaved rose; but the greater number bear the likeness of the poppy. The colours differ as much as the form. Sometimes the animal-flower is of a deep purple, frequently of a rose colour, but mostly of a light red or fleshy hue. The most beautiful of them that could be picked up, have often been carried from the shore of Colvend 12 or 15 miles up into the country, where they have lived, fed on worms, and even bred for several weeks; and might have existed much longer if they could have been supplied with sea-water. Their lively colours, and the variety of elegant forms in which they are found, equal any thing recited by natural historians of the sea-flowers of other climates. It is a subject of no small curiosity to see a purple, red, or yellow flower striving to catch a worm.

Kirkcudbright labours under great disadvantages in consequence of no mineral coal having hitherto been found in it; yet it has a variety of minerals, among them are iron, limestone, shell-marl, slate and lead: copper is also said to appear, but none has been produced. There are many chalybeate and other mineral springs.

The principal towns in the stewartry are, Kirkcudbright, Gatehouse of Fleet, Creetown, Castle Douglas, and New Galloway.

Kirkcudbright is supposed to derive its name from a church which stood near it, and was dedicated to St. Cuthbert. The town is agreeably situated, near the foot of the river Dee, at the head of extensive sands, which are periodically covered by the tide; and in the midst of which is situated a beautiful, nearly insulated spot, called St. Mary's isle, a seat of the Earl of Selkirk. The harbour of Kirkcudbright is situated on the north side of Solway Frith, about 10 leagues north-east of the Isle of Man, and seven leagues north-west of St. Ree's Head in England. It is a safe natural harbour with good anchorage, and shelter from all winds, and by much the best on the south coast of Scotland; but being almost a dry harbour, it is proper only for such vessels as can take the ground. What is called the castle of Kirkcudbright, of which a magnificent ruin remains, was built about 1570 upon the site of the collegiate church. The town of Kirkcudbright itself bears some marks of ancient fortifications.

The royal borough called *New Galloway*, is an inland village, in the centre of the stewartry, upon the water of Ken. It has

has four annual fairs, and an excellent market for oatmeal and barley.

Castle Douglas, formerly called *Carlinwark*, is situated upon the loch of that name; it has been erected into a borough of barony, and is a thriving village not more than 30 years old; but in which there are now about 700 inhabitants. The cotton manufacture has here been attempted; but the price of fuel is a grievous impediment.

The *Gatehouse of Fleet* has also had a rapid rise; its oldest house is an inn, which was built about the year 1765; but it now contains nearly 1,200 inhabitants. It has been raised to its present size and population by the cotton manufacture, which is established to a considerable extent.

Creetown has lately been erected into a borough of barony. It was formerly denominated the *Ferry Town of Cree*, from the ferry or passage boat constantly kept there. It is beautifully situated at the upper part of Wigton Bay. Some manufactures have lately been introduced. A considerable number of vessels employed in the coasting trade belong to it, and it is rapidly increasing.

The remains of antiquity in Kirkcudbright are still numerous; among the most distinguished ruins are the *Abbey of Sweetheart*, founded in the 13th century; *Hills Castle*, formerly belonging to the Douglas family; the college of Lincluden, originally a Benedictine nunnery, *Dundrennan Abbey*, founded in 1142; *Buittle Castle*, a favourite residence of John Baliol, and *Thrieff castle*, situated in an island of the river Dee.

Beside these ruins, attention is justly directed to the mount, called the *Moat of Urr*, which is perhaps the largest work of the kind in Scotland. It stands on the west bank of the river Urr about half a mile below the church. Some antiquarians consider these artificial hills as the spots where courts of justice were held in ancient times. Though there is no reason for supposing that this was a Roman work, yet there is little doubt that the neighbourhood was visited by that people, as their coins have been found on different occasions.

In the parish of Buittle is one of those ruins commonly called *vitriified forts*, which have greatly perplexed antiquaries. They are stone buildings, which bear the marks of having suffered fire of such intenseness as to bring upon them evident marks of fusion. Different conjectures have been stated to account for the cause of this appearance. One of these is, that the building was originally constructed of stone, but bound together with great beams and posts of timber, in the manner that Cæsar describes the ancient Gauls as having erected their fortifications, to render them difficult to be destroyed

stroyed by the battering ram. It has been supposed, however, that when such fortresses were assailed by fire, the large quantities of timber contained in them, generated sufficient heat to produce a partial fusion of the stones, and that thus the vitrification was produced at the time of their destruction. On the other hand, it has been more generally imagined, that the vitrification was coeval with the existence of the buildings, and that they might be brought into that state in one of two ways: either the walls might be originally built in the centre of a frame of wood, and when they had reached their intended height, the wood being set on fire, a great part of the stones might be vitrified to such a degree as to cement the whole together; or it has been conjectured, that instead of wood, which could scarcely produce the effect here supposed, kelp, or common sea-weed was used; that being intermingled in great abundance, or stratified with the stones of the building, as is done with bricks or limestone in a kiln, and large quantities of the same substance laid over the walls, the whole was set on fire, and that thus the stones of the wall were softened and cemented together, by being partially reduced to glass. In confirmation of this last conjecture, it has been remarked, that the kind of stones of which such forts are built are actually capable of being easily melted or vitrified by the aid of the mineral alkali which abounds in kelp or sea-weed. It has also been observed, that all the forts of the kind alluded to, the walls of which appear to have suffered partial vitrification, stand at no very great distance from the sea-coast.

In the parish of Kells is to be seen a *rocking stone*, eight or ten tons in weight, and resting upon another rock. It is so nicely balanced that it can be moved by the pressure of the finger. It is altogether rude and bears no appearance of workmanship.

In the parish of Kirkmabrek, near the river Cree, is a remarkable heap of stones, called *Cairnbholy* or the *Holy Cairn*. According to tradition it was reared over the grave of King Galdus. Several years ago a great many of the stones were carried away for the purpose of building houses and dikes, when there were discovered large stones placed together in form of a chest or coffin; but the roof-stone being of prodigious magnitude, it has never been removed to see what it contains. This tomb has given rise to much speculation, but nothing certain is known.

The population of this stewartry amounts to 29,211. The number of houses is 5,761.

Kirkcudbright contains 369 houses; the inhabitants amount to 2,380.

LANARK-

LANARKSHIRE.

THE shire of Lanark is very generally denominated *Clydesdale*, from the river Clyde, which has its source in the upper confines of the county, traverses it in a winding course of upwards of 60 miles, dividing it longitudinally, and afterwards wafts the trade of Glasgow and Paisley to the ocean. This county is in the centre of the south of Scotland between the Atlantic and German oceans; and is bounded by the counties of West and Mid-Lothian and Peebles on the east, by Dumfriesshire on the south, by the counties of Ayr and Renfrew on the west, and by those of Dumbarton and Stirling on the north. The greatest length of the shire from north to south is about 47 miles; and the greatest breadth from east to west about 32 miles. The square contents are perhaps nearly 870 miles, equal to 556,800 English acres, or nearly 445,440 of the ordinary Scotch measure.

It is naturally divided into two equal parts by the Clyde; but its civil divisions are the upper ward, comprising a great portion of the south-eastern district; the middle, forming the Midland; and the city and town of Glasgow, with the under ward, forming the north-western part. The soil and face of this county, which at the north-western extremity is rich, well sprinkled with groves and woods and abounding in every species of grain, becomes gradually barer and less fertile in ascending the course of the Clyde toward the south-east.

The chief water of the county is the *Clyde*, of which some description has already been attempted. The minor streams are the *Elwin* and *Glengonar*, the sands of which were formerly washed in the hope of obtaining gold-dust; the *Little Clyde*, *Dunneftane*, *Coulter*, *Midwayn*, *Douglas*, and several other waters which are only deserving of notice as they contribute to the stream of the Clyde. There are also the river *Moufe*, which has on its banks a recess called Wallace's cave, said to have been a retreat of that hero; the *Logan*, which loses its name when blended with the *Nethan*, and the *Avon*, which, after receiving the waters of several inferior streams, empties itself into the Clyde near the town of Hamilton.

The mineral productions of this county are whinstone, freestone, lime, coal of various descriptions, iron and iron-stone of the species called *ludus Helmontii* or waxen veins, ætites or eagle-stone, supposed by the ignorant to have beneficial influence on childbirth, and keel, lead, and some less useful mineral productions. The qualities which folly and superstition ascribe to the eagle-stone, lead to the mention of the
adder-

adder-stone and snake-stone, said also to be found in Scotland. The account usually given of the formation of the adder-stone is, that at a certain season of the year a great number of adders assemble, and that the largest among them casts his skin, which he does by quick convulsions of his body. Through this skin the rest of the serpents force their way with great agility; every one at passing through leaving a slime or slough behind him. By degrees the skin becomes considerably thick, and upon drying takes the form in which it is afterwards found. To come near the adders while thus employed is said to be attended with no small danger. A circumstance which is reported to have happened in Mosslanders, a well known peat-moss, lying in the counties of Stirling and Perth, is frequently mentioned as a proof of this. A man travelling through the moss, as the story says, chanced to pass very near the place where a great number of serpents were employed making a stone. Being perceived by them, they instantly set up a horrid hissing, and with one accord darted after the man, who was forced to flee with all his might to save his life. At length, finding himself about to be overtaken by his incensed pursuers, he threw away his plaid that he might run with greater speed. By this circumstance he made a fortunate escape; for returning next day in search of the plaid, he found it full of holes made by the adders, who had forced themselves through it, and thereby wreaked their vengeance on their imaginary enemy. The adder-stone thus produced, or the beads and rings substituted in its place, is thought by superstitious people to possess many wonderful properties. It is used as a charm to insure prosperity, and to prevent the malicious attacks of evil spirits. In this case, it must be closely kept in an iron box, to secure it from the *fairies*, who are supposed to have an utter abhorrence of iron. It is also worn as an amulet about the necks of children, to cure sore eyes, chincough, and some other diseases, and to assist them in cutting their teeth. It is sometimes boiled in water, as a specific for diseases in cattle: but frequently the cure is supposed to be performed by only rubbing with the stone the part affected. The account given of the snake-stone is nearly similar; but the substances found and called by these names are apparently nothing but antique rings of glass, imported during the earliest ages by the Phœnicians, and which were of the manufacture of Egypt, Tyre, and Sidon.

Roman roads and camps, cairns, monasteries, castles and other remains of antiquity are found in various parts of the county. Several of these are well deserving of notice, particularly

cularly Bothwell castle, church, and bridge, and the priory of Blantyre.

Beside Glasgow, which will be mentioned at the close of this head, there are two royal boroughs, Lanark and Rutherglen.

Lanark, from which the county derives its name, is of high antiquity. It consists of a principal street, which is very spacious, and descends in a direction toward the Clyde. From its foot, where the church and town-house stand, a variety of inferior and more narrow streets branch off in different directions. The town is said to have been anciently fortified; no vestiges of such works can be now discovered, but below the town is the Castle hill, which has somewhat the appearance of an artificial mount, and was perhaps originally fortified by the Romans. The old parish church of Lanark is now in ruins, about a quarter of a mile to the south-east of the town. About half a mile to the eastward of the town are the ruins of the hospital of St. Leonard, probably founded by Robert the First. Lanark has derived activity, opulence, and importance, from spacious and well-regulated cotton mills erected in its vicinity; a village called New Lanark is formed for the accommodation of the work people. The town of Lanark has 643 houses, and 4,692 people; the inhabitants of the village are about 1,500.

Rutherglen is situated in the lower ward of the county, on the south bank of the Clyde, two miles and a half to the south-east of Glasgow, and about nine miles to the west of Hamilton. In former times the castle of Rutherglen was considered as one of the most important Scottish fortresses. During the last century it was left to fall into ruins, and by frequent dilapidations was levelled with the ground. The church of Rutherglen is a small but very ancient structure; the oldest part of it is 62 feet in length and 25 in breadth.

In the parish of Rutherglen are 368 houses, and 2,437 inhabitants.

The town of *Hamilton* stands in a low situation upon the Clyde, skirting around the bottom of a rising ground of about three quarters of a mile in length. It is a considerable thoroughfare, as the roads from Glasgow toward England, and from Edinburgh to Ayrshire, pass through it. In the middle are the prison and town-house. The parish church stands above the town upon a rising ground. Adjoining to the town-house stands an hospital or alms-house, which was built instead of one that stood in the lower part of the town near Hamilton-house. It was endowed by the family of Hamilton. At some distance is another hospital for four old men and their families, endowed

endowed in 1775 by Mr. William Aikman, who had been a merchant in Leghorn. At Hamilton was a collegiate church, founded in 1451 by Sir James Hamilton of Cadzow, ancestor to the Dukes of Hamilton, for a provost and several prebendaries. It is also the burial place of that family. Hamilton-house, which stands on the level valley between the town and the river Clyde, is a large pile, having two deep wings at right-angles with the centre. The collection of paintings is extremely valuable, and has always attracted the attention of travellers. Hamilton has 652 houses, in which are 5,908 inhabitants.

The city of *Glasgow*, although not politically the capital of the county, is not only the most interesting object in this part of the county, but may justly be regarded as the great capital or centre of the manufactures and commerce of Scotland. Glasgow stands in the nether ward of Lanarkshire, upon the northern bank of the Clyde; but a part of its suburbs has extended to the southern side of that river. It may be considered, in a general view, as built in the form of a cross. Two principal and very long streets cut each other at right-angles, and their intersection is in some degree to be considered as the centre of the city, and is actually denominated the cross or market-place. The principal part of the city stands westward and north-westward from the intersection of the two great streets, because it is in this direction that the newest and most elegant buildings of the city, or what is called the New Town, have in a great measure been constructed. What is called the Green of Glasgow occupies a considerable extent of territory on the south-east, while the gardens and fields belonging to the university fill a considerable space on the north-east.

Without attempting minutely to describe or to enumerate the streets and squares which compose this great city, it may suffice to observe, that while the ancient part of it exhibits the customary defects of heaviness, darkness, and inconvenience, the more modern structures are airy, elegant, spacious, and well contrived, suited to the honest luxury of wealthy merchants. It is objected to the new town that its buildings want regularity, but perhaps this is in reality a source of beauty, and a relief from the fatigue which the eye is compelled to endure in a progress through parallel lines of corresponding buildings, relieved only by squares, of which each side is a correct specimen of the other three.

One of the most important objects connected with this city is the river. Although it contains a large stream of water, and the declivity to the Frith of Clyde is very trifling, yet in consequence

consequence of the softness of the soil through which it runs, it naturally spreads itself to a great breadth, which is productive of a degree of shallowness inconsistent with navigation. Hence, though the spring tides flow above the city almost to the distance of four miles, yet in former times the river was navigable to Glasgow by none but very small vessels. This inconvenience was remedied by deepening its bed, and strengthening the canal by means of jetties on the sides. To defray the expence, a duty of eightpence per ton on coals and one shilling per ton on goods or merchandize conveyed from Dumbuck Ford to the city was imposed, and lighters of seventy tons now approach the quay with ease. There are three bridges, two of stone and a third of wood, which was erected after an unsuccessful attempt to rear a stone bridge. The old bridge opposite to the street called Stockwell, was built in 1350, by William Rae, bishop of Glasgow. The new bridge stands immediately above the quay; it was begun in 1768, consists of seven arches, and is about 500 feet in length and 32 in breadth. Over the centre of each of the pillars, between the arches, is a small circular arch. These give a very light appearance to the bridge; and by allowing a free passage to the waters of the river when in flood, contribute to the security of the fabric.

The town is well paved and lighted; but it is a singular circumstance, that although it stands upon a navigable river, and is inhabited by a race of men whose enterprising spirit does not yield to that found any where else in the British islands, yet it is very defectively supplied with water, and that too of a bad quality. In consequence of the variety of mineral strata with which this part of the country is enriched, it necessarily happens that most of the springs, whether rising spontaneously to the surface or reached by digging wells, contain some mineral impregnation; and yet it is only from wells or springs within its own boundary that this great city is supplied.

Glasgow stands in the centre of a great coal field; and that valuable mineral is brought to the surface in various quarters around it, and even in its suburbs, particularly at Camlachie. To this circumstance, together with its navigable river, it owes its magnitude and increasing importance.

The history of Glasgow, excepting so far as relates to the recent progress of its commercial prosperity, contains little that is interesting. Being a provincial town, known only in ancient times as the residence of ecclesiastics, it was the scene of few remarkable events. It does not appear to have been ever fortified;

tified; and in the turbulent but superstitious times which preceded the Reformation, as the only wealthy inhabitants were the clergy, they would derive more protection from the reverence paid to their character than from walls and bulwarks. It has been the scene of some military and some ecclesiastical conflicts of small importance in the general scale of history, but in general the events by which it can be distinguished are only those which attend the progress of commercial prosperity, a state in which man is beset with difficulties and impediments, and in which the fluctuations of fortune are frequently felt; but in which perseverance and good sense will finally insure success.

According to necessities, arising from its increasing population, the city of Glasgow, from being but one, has been divided into eight parishes, called, from the places of performing divine service, the Inner High Church, the Outer High Church, the Tron Church, the College Church, the Wynd Church, the North-West Church, St. Andrew's Church, and St. Enoch's Church, each of which has a separate clergyman, and each a separate kirk-session; but, in some respects, the city, exclusive of the outskirts called the Barony and Gorbals, is still considered as one great parish, for the members of all the particular sessions assemble together on the first Thursday of every month, in one general session, for the discussion of whatever relates to religious order in the city, or the administration of the funds allotted to the support of the poor, whether arising from the public collections at the churches, or from other charitable donations.

In considering the religious establishments of Glasgow, the Cathedral or High Church necessarily takes the lead. It is the most entire specimen of ancient Gothic architecture in Scotland. The see of Glasgow is said to have been founded about the year 560, by St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was the first bishop. The Cathedral itself was begun in 1123 by John Achaius, bishop of Glasgow; consecrated in 1136 in presence of David the First, King of Scotland, and dedicated to St. Kentigern or to St. Mungo, a wonder-working saint of great celebrity. At the Reformation, the Archbishop of Glasgow was James Beaton, nephew to Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews; he attempted at first to defend himself against the turbulent attacks of the reformers. He made an alliance with the Duke of Chatelherault, who agreed to defend, and he fortified his castle; but finding the torrent of public sentiment too strong to be resisted, he fled to France in 1560, carrying with him the archives of his see, which he deposited in the Scots College at Paris, in the monastery of Carthusians.

He likewise took with him the relicks of saints which were preserved in the Cathedral, together with the most valuable moveables contained in it. The furious zealots of reformation were desirous of destroying the building as a vast monument of the idolatry of their forefathers, but partly by management and partly by force they were prevented.

The Cathedral stands at the upper or northern part of the High-street, in a very elevated situation, commanding a view of the vale of Clyde, from the mountain of Tintoc on the east, to Paisley, Greenock, and the mountains of Argyleshire on the west. Immediately to the east of the Cathedral is a deep ravine, in which flows the Mollendinar or Gallowgate Burn, and in its vicinity, on the opposite side, is a modern public building, the Infirmary, which forms a striking contrast to the rude majesty of this ancient Gothic fabric. The length of the Cathedral, within the walls, is 339 feet, and its breadth 72 feet. The height of the choir, from the floor to the roof, is 90 feet; that of the nave, now called the Inner High Church, 85 feet. The circumference of the walls, without following the windings of the aisles, is 975 feet. It is supported by 147 pillars, and lighted by 157 windows. Like all buildings of a similar nature, it is in the form of a cross, whose greatest length runs from east to west, and its transverse or shortest length, from north to south. On the outside of the building, the walls which run east and west are supported, or rather aided, by strong pillars or buttresses standing out from the walls, but leaning toward them. Between each of the great pillars are placed Gothic windows of different dimensions. This succession of pillars and windows proceeds along the whole outside of the side walls of the building from east to west, excepting at the centre, where the transverse part of the cross projects outward on both sides. The ends of this projection contain each a great window on opposite sides of the Cathedral, 40 feet high and 22 feet in breadth at the base. Along the side walls the alternate windows and pillars reach nearly to the commencement of the roof at the summit of the wall. From the wall springs the roof, which rises obliquely inward, and thereafter reaches a second or inner wall, the whole length of which is divided, like the lower or front wall, by pillars or projections, between each of which are three narrow Gothic windows on the same line with the windows of the lower story. The inner side walls support a roof which is covered with lead. The inner walls rest upon Gothic arches supported by pillars within the building. This church has two towers or steeples; one of these, at the west end, is a square tower, which rises about

thirty feet above the roof, and thereafter terminates in a roof in the form of a pyramid, which is covered with lead. The great tower or steeple rises from the centre of the whole building. Its form, to the height of about thirty feet from the roof of the Cathedral, is square, terminating in a battlement and ballustrade. Within the battlement an octangular spire of a tapering form ascends, and is terminated by a vane. The octangular spire is adorned by two ballustrades, and by several Gothic windows. The height of this middle steeple is 223 feet from the floor of the choir, or 323 feet above the level of the Clyde. In the lesser steeple is placed a clock and a great bell, which is twelve feet one inch in circumference, and has a grave and deep note. It is rung at the hour of ten every evening. In 1789 it was accidentally cracked by some persons who had got admission to the steeple; it was therefore sent to London and cast anew. The chapter-house was in the north cross of the Cathedral, and had a communication with the nave by a vaulted entry. The south cross was never completed, and is at present used as a burying-place for the clergy of the city. Its architecture appears to have been finer than that of the rest of the building; its arched roof being supported by columns adjoining to the outer walls, which support Gothic arches. There is also a row of pillars in the centre; the capitals of the whole are highly ornamented. The south part of the cross is supposed to be of no older date than 1500. The area of the top of it is at present formed into an ornamented piece of garden ground. The consistorial house, in which the bishop's courts were formerly held, projects from the south-west corner of the Cathedral. The principal gate, which is now shut up, is large and magnificent. It is on the west, betwixt the consistorial house and the lowest tower or steeple. The usual entries are on the south. The building is at present occupied by three churches, beside the choir, which remains in some degree empty. These are called the Outer Church, Inner High Church, and Barony Church. The outer church was formerly a part of the choir; from the rest of which it is at present separated by a division wall of stone. Here are to be seen two rows of Gothic columns, which support the inner side walls of the Cathedral. Arches spring from the top of the pillars, and connect them with each other. Upon these arches the inner side walls are built. In the choir is to be seen the same range of pillars, with windows between each. The four most easterly pillars are very massy; each of them is thirty feet in circumference and eighty-eight feet in height; they support the great steeple in the centre of the church.

church. Here an organ, belonging to the institution for sacred music, has been erected.

In the inner High Church is to be seen to advantage the lofty arched roof which springs from the top of the inner walls; on the east, in the area which is now at the back of the pulpit, stood the altar; northward from which is the vestry, the roof of which is supported by a single pillar nineteen feet in height, from which spring arches in all directions toward pillars in each angle of the house. The Barony Church is a very dismal place, situated immediately under the nave, or inner High Church, to the east of the cross. It was formerly used as a burying vault; at the eastern part of it, immediately below the great altar, is shown the monument of St. Mungo or Kentigern, and the basin for containing the holy water. Upon the whole, this vast massy pile conveys a high idea of the power of the church in ancient times, and no small opinion of the architectural skill of the age in which it was erected. Around the Cathedral is the principal burying-ground of the city.

The College-church derives its name from its vicinity to the college or university, to the southward of which it is placed. Little taste or ornament appears in it.

The Tron or Laigh Church, which stands in the Trongate, near the head of King-street, the steeple of which projects into the street, and is seen from the cross, is a handsome modern building erected in 1794. The steeple or spire, one of the ornaments of the most extensive street in this city, was built in 1637, and is 126 feet in height.

The Wynd Church, at the back of King-street, was originally built by the Presbyterian dissenters during the reign of James the Seventh. It has since been rebuilt by the city: it has no spire or bell.

The north-west or Ram's-horn Church was built by the community of Glasgow in 1724. It has a spire 140 feet high, and a clock; but contains nothing remarkable.

St. Andrew's Church, in the centre of the square of that name, is an elegant oblong building, which was begun in 1739, but was not finished till 1756. The steeple has been said by Mr. Pennant to have a pepper-box top: it is crowned with a dome beneath the spire, on which the weather-cock is placed; and by its injudicious construction the upper part of it seems to a spectator larger, or of a greater diameter, than the lower part.

St. Enoch's Church stands at the southern part of the square of the same name. The foundation-stone was laid 12th April 1780. It is well lighted, and handsomely finished within.

The most recent of the churches of Glasgow is that of the New Barony. The design was given by the Adams', but it has been executed in a very coarse manner.

The village of Gorbals also has its own church and burying-ground, and forms a separate parish.

Beside these there are three chapels belonging to the establishment; the College-chapel, the free Presbyterian meeting-house, and a third in which divine service is performed partly in the English language and partly in Gaelic, for the accommodation of the natives of the Highlands who reside in the city. There is also the English chapel, in which service is performed according to the manner of the church of England; the common people, on account of its organ, call it the *whistling kirk*. There are also two Burgher and one Anti-burgher meeting-houses; a place of worship belonging to a congregation of Independents; one or perhaps two for Anabaptists; one for Glaslites; a large Methodist meeting-house; two large houses and two congregations of the Relief communion; besides a large church in Anderston, another in the Calton, and a popish meeting. The latest of the religious establishments is that denominated the Tabernacle, it belongs to a new sect which sends forth itinerant preachers to different quarters of the country, holds correspondence with the English Methodists, and does not limit its adherence to a strict attachment to any particular denomination of Christians.

The principal literary institution in Glasgow is the university, which will be noticed hereafter.

There are beside, the grammar-school, or Latin school, in George-street; Wilson's school, for clothing and educating forty-eight boys; Crawford's and Baxter's schools, in each of which forty-eight girls and boys; and Tennant's, where ninety-six are educated but not cloathed. There are also some other schools for girls, and many Sunday schools. Stirling's library, founded by a gentleman of that name, is an increasing and useful establishment; the corporation of surgeons have a hall and library, and there are several literary societies, all tending to spread and keep alive the love of knowledge.

Glasgow has several charitable foundations. The hospital of St. Nicholas was established by Bishop Muirhead, about the middle of the fifteenth century; it maintained originally twelve old men and a priest, but its revenues are now almost lost. The merchants' and the trades' hospitals were both in existence at the beginning of the seventeenth century, but they are slenderly endowed. Hutcheson's hospital, founded in 1639, was intended for twelve old men and as many boys, but has been extended so as to receive, in addition, as many women.

women. The Town's hospital is a more ample charity; it was founded in 1730, and its revenue is about 1,400*l.* a-year. There are also charities known by the names of Scott's Mortification, and Mitchell's Mortification; a dispensary, a Magdalen asylum, and various gifts from the corporations and from voluntary associations.

The city is governed by a town-council, consisting of a provost, five baillies, a dean of guild, a deacon-convener, a master of works, and twenty-three councilmen, twelve of whom are merchants, and the remaining eleven belong to the incorporated trades. The armorial bearing of the city exhibits an oak tree with a bird above; at the foot a salmon, with a gold ring in its mouth; and on a branch on the left side, a bell; the motto, "Let Glasgow flourish." Before the Reformation, St. Mungo's head mitred was on the right of the shield, with two salmons for supporters. The salmon and the ring in the Glasgow arms are accounted for by the following legend: In the days of St. Kentigern, a lady having lost her wedding ring, it stirred up her husband's jealousy; to allay which she applied to St. Kentigern, imploring his help for the safety of her honour. Not long after, as St. Kentigern walked by the river, he desired a person that was fishing to bring him the first fish he could catch, which was accordingly done, and from its mouth was taken the lady's ring; the recovery whereof in this manner effectually took away her husband's suspicion.

There are also within the city proper establishments for the administration of justice, and for regulation of the police.

Glasgow contains 21,460 houses, and 77,385 people.

The whole county has 33,803 dwellings and 146,699 inhabitants.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, or WEST LoTHIAN.

THE appellation of this shire is plainly derived from the name of the county town, which itself obtained its descriptive title from the singular site of its loch, or lin. The location of this lake may properly be called a broad concavity. Linlith-cu is the most ancient appellation which, in the language of the British settlers in the earliest times of colonization, signifies the concavity of the expansive lin, or loch. The length of this county on the east side, from the foot of Almon on the north-east, to the top of Briech water on the south-east, is nearly twenty-one miles; the breadth is twelve miles. The superficial contents of the whole appear from very minute cal-

culations to be 121 square miles, or 77,440 statute acres. It is divided from the county of Edinburgh on the east and south by the water of Almond, and by the Brieck, which is one of the streams that fall into the Almond. It is divided from Stirlingshire on the west by the water of Avon; and here and on the south-west it touches a part of Lanarkshire.

In this shire are many objects worthy the attention of the naturalist. None of its protuberances rise into lofty eminences, neither is its surface by any means flat: it is diversified by a number of small hills. The most remarkable of them form a range, which runs from Bowden, across the middle of the county, in an oblique direction from north-west to south-east. Cairn-naple, the most prominent centre of this range, rises to the height of 1,498 feet above the level of the sea; and Cocklerne, on the western part, rises 500 feet. The Kipps hills, Knocks hills, and Drumcross hills, are all conspicuous parts of this range, of which Ricardton edge and Binny craig may also be deemed a portion. The second class of hills which are worthy of notice, is variously distributed throughout the northern parts of the county, along the Forth; of those the most conspicuous are Mons hill, Craigie hill, and Dundas hill, in Dalmenie parish; Craigton hill and Binns hill, in Abercorn parish; and Irongarth, in Linlithgow parish. The middle and western districts of the county are the most hilly: the east and north are the most plain. The southern divisions of this shire consist mostly of moor, moss, and morafs, with few heights of any elevation. In general, the hills in this shire are both useful and ornamental; nearly the whole of them affording abundant pasturage from a grassy surface; many of them being ornamented with woods, and some of them containing valuable minerals.

In Linlithgowshire there are not many waters of great extent. The only lakes are the loch at Linlithgow town, and Lochcoat in Torphichen parish. The *lake at Linlithgow* occupies about 154 English acres, and contains pike, perch, and eels. *Lochcoat* empties its superfluous water by a stream from its north-west end, which falls into what is appropriately called the Eel Ark; and from thence runs under ground more than two hundred paces, when it breaks out by a spring which forms a streamlet that flows into the Avon. Of large rivers this county cannot boast, yet it is well watered by several streams for every domestic purpose, while the Almond on the east, and the Avon on the west, are the only considerable riverets. The *Almond* is chiefly formed by three small streamlets which rise within the eastern border of Lanarkshire; and being joined by the Breich, the united stream flows in an easy course

course between Linlithgowshire and Edinburghshire, till its fall into the Forth at Cramond, after a course of 24 miles, that forms the drain of Edinburgh on the west, and Linlithgow on the east. The Almond receives also Broks burn, with several smaller streams which drain the eastern districts of this county. The *Avon* (which more properly belongs to Stirlingshire, wherein it rises, and traversing that shire for six or seven miles, enters Linlithgow at West Straith), separates the two conterminous shires throughout a course of a dozen miles, when it falls into the Forth. The Avon as it flows receives some supplies from *Logie water*, which drains much of the western divisions of Linlithgow; and from the *Linn burn*, that forms the boundary of the two counties, throughout four miles, before it mixes with the Avon. With other rivulets, *Midhope burn* and *Dolphinston burn* drain the northern parts of this shire. The Avon and the Almond are more useful for the driving of mills than beneficial for fish, which have been forced from their haunts by the operations of agriculture and manufacture. The Avon has long been the western limit of Lothian; but the *Forth*, either as an object of ornament or as a contributor of profit, is of the greatest importance to Linlithgowshire. It washes sixteen miles of the northern shores of this county. This estuary supplies sites for salt-pans, fish for food, and harbours for traffic. The banks of the Forth are generally high, except towards the west, where a tract of two thousand acres is left dry at every reflux of the tide, nearly opposite to the parish of Borrowstowness.

This small county abounds with minerals of the most useful kind. Pit-coal is said to have been dug in the parish of Borrowstowness, upwards of 500 years ago. It has continued to be raised in great quantities, and other parishes produce it in plenty, and of excellent quality; much is used in the salt-pans and other works, and a large quantity is exported. Limestone also every where abounds in this county; is manufactured to great profit, and distributed to general advantage. The whole shire seems to stand on a bed of free-stone, which is of the finest quality; and is distributed largely for domestic supply and for foreign use. There are several other sorts of stone, such as whin-stone, granite, slate-stone, and basaltes. On Dundas hill is a basaltic rock 250 yards long and about 60 feet high, with an almost perpendicular front; the whole consisting of a bluish granite of very fine texture. In Borrowstowness, in Torphichen, in Bathgate, in Abercorn, and perhaps in other parishes, iron-stone is found in great abundance. Silver and lead mines have been formerly wrought in Linlithgow parish to some account. A vein of silver was discovered

in a lime-stone rock within Bathgate parish, but the produce did not pay the expence of raising the ore. In the rivulets, within Torphichen parish, mundic has been found. This shire is rich in marl; shell marl was dragged from Linlithgow loch in considerable quantities, till the benefits of lime, as a manure, superseded the use of it. Here, too, are found fuller's earth, potter's clay, brick clay, and red chalk.

The town of *Linlithgow* consists of one principal street, neatly built, on the bank of a lake. David I. had here a castle and a grange. After many intermediate political events, the first parliament of Charles II., in January 1661, passed an act of ratification in favour of the borough of Linlithgow. This shire town ranks as the sixth among the royal boroughs of Scotland. Under the union, it was associated with the towns of Lanark, Selkirk, and Peebles, in the privilege of sending a representative to the united parliament. The most remarkable object in Linlithgow is the palace, now in ruins. It stands on a rising ground running into a lake; a situation which could scarcely fail to prove pleasing. It has, when viewed from the north, the appearance of an amphitheatre, with a descent on three sides, and terrace walks on the west. King Edward the First built a palace, or rather fort, upon this spot, in which he resided a whole winter. It was afterwards subjected to many vicissitudes, and after the accession of the Stuart family to the throne, became a fixed royal residence; and the queens of Scotland had it in several instances assigned to them as a jointure-house. It is at present a magnificent ruin, the greater part of it five stories high. The inside of it is embellished with good sculpture, considering the time in which it was executed. Over the inside of the grand gate was a statue of Pope Julius the Second, with the triple crown, who sent a consecrated sword and helmet to James the Fifth. It long escaped the fury of the Reformers; but at last, in the early part of the late century, a zealous blacksmith destroyed it. The palace is all polished stone, and covers an acre of ground. Here was born, on the 8th of December, 1542, the unfortunate Queen Mary. Her father, James the Fifth, then dying at Falkland, of a broken heart, for the miscarriage at Solway Moss, foretold the miseries that hung over her and Scotland. "It came," said he, "with a woman," (alluding to the manner in which the family of Stuart obtained the crown by a marriage into the family of Bruce,) "and it will be lost with one." The chapel was built by James the Fifth. The church is a handsome building, and some of the windows are extremely elegant. Here is still shewn the aisle where King James the Fourth saw the apparition that warned him of the
impending

impending fate of the battle of Flodden. There is no doubt that while the king attended the evening service in Saint Catharine's aisle, one in an unusual form and habit, suddenly appeared, and dissuaded him from the expedition into England, on which he was so strongly bent. It is supposed to have been a stratagem of his queen; but the catastrophe which followed, in a superstitious and credulous age, converted it into a real apparition and a prophecy, though it is evident that the king himself had given it no credit. The church, which is used for parochial service, is a fine Gothic building.

In this shire are other towns, though of less populousness and dignity. The royal borough of *Queen's Ferry* is of recent date, while its name is old, supposed to be derived from Margaret Queen of Malcolm Kenmore. Under the union, it has the privilege of choosing a representative, with the other boroughs of Stirling, Inverkeithing, Dumfermline, and Culrofs.

Borrowstowness is a burgh of regality; and, as a sea-port, contains industrious people, who employ many ships.

Bathgate is a borough of barony, from early times, which has seven yearly fairs, and some internal traffic.

Whitburn is a burgh of barony; and *Brockburn*, and *Blackburn*, are market towns, which have arisen, in recent times, from the efforts of industry.

The shire contains 2,956 houses, and 17,844 inhabitants. The town of Linlithgow has 489 houses, and 3,594 people.

NAIRNSHIRE.

THIS small county is situated on the coast and forms the western part of the county or province of Moray. It is about 20 miles in length, in breadth 14. The country consists of rough mountains covered with heath or pasture, and tufted with large woods of fir, but these heights are intersected by a few straths or valleys not inferior in fertility to the other northern parts of Scotland, and producing oats and barley. It is watered by the river *Findhorn*, which runs from the south-west to the north-west; and there is also the stream called the *water of Nairn*, which takes its rise in the hills of Inverness-shire.

The principal part of the shire is peopled by the Frasers. by some considered as the most warlike clan of Scotland. Their general occupation is feeding sheep and black cattle. The trade and manufactures of the county are too trifling to deserve notice.

This

This district contains many villages, but no place of note except *Nairn*, a royal burgh, situated on the bank of the *Nairn*. Its harbour, which opened into the *Moray frith*, and which was probably once not inconsiderable, is now nearly choked with sand. It has 549 houses, and 2,215 inhabitants.

At *Ardesier*, a small isthmus, about six miles north-west of *Nairn*, is a small fort recently built to command the *Moray frith*.

This shire joins with *Cromarty* in sending alternately a member to parliament.

The population amounts to 8,257 souls; the number of houses is 1,972.

ORKNEY.

THE shire of *Orkney* comprises the *Orkney* and *Shetland* islands, of which an account will be given together with the other isles of *Scotland*.

PEEBLES-SHIRE OF TWEEDDALE.

THE appellation of this county is derived from the Celtic name of the shire town. On the north it is bounded by *Midlothian* or county of *Edinburgh*; on the south by *Dumfriesshire*; on the east by *Selkirkshire* or *Ettrick forest*; and on the west by the county of *Lanark*. From the most accurate calculations, it appears that the superficies of the whole shire is 338 square miles, containing 216,320 statute acres.

The outline of the surface of *Peeblesshire*, consisting of alternations of hill and dale, is the most striking of its natural features. From the dale of the *Tweed*, which forms the centre of the county, the surface rises on both its sides, to the south and to the north: the hills toward the extremities of the shire mount to the greatest heights; the mountains, which separate *Tweeddale* from *Annandale*, are the highest in southern *Scotland*; and there are many other hills of very great elevation.

In the midst of all its inequalities of surface, *Peeblesshire* cannot boast of its lakes; nor can the topographers of this county be allowed to assume the *St. Mary loch* of *Selkirkshire* as their own, although its western margin, for more than a mile, forms the boundary of *Peeblesshire*. The most considerable lake in this county is the beautiful water loch in *Edleston* parish; it is nearly three quarters of a mile long, and half a mile broad; and abounds in pike and eels, while it is the perio-

periodical resort of wild fowl, which dip the wing in water. On the estate of *Slipperfield*, in *Linton* parish, there is a lake of nearly a mile and a half in circumference, which breeds pike and perch but not eels, as the water is impregnated with moss. The only other lake which diversifies this shire, is *Gameshope loch*, within the bosom of an uninhabited glen, in *Tweedsmuir* parish; and which is emptied by *Gameshope burn*, one of the sources of *Talla* water.

Yet is *Peebles-shire* well watered by many streams. The *Tweed* is the great channel, which collects and carries off the whole moisture of "this misty mountain ground." This celebrated river rises on the mountainous ridge that separates *Tweeddale* from *Annandale*; at *Drummellier* it receives the united streams of *Holms*, *Kilbucho*, and *Biggar*. In its winding course it receives the water of several other rivers; the most considerable are the *Lyne*, the *Edleston*, and the *Leithen*, which fall into this common reservoir, on the north, and the *Manor* and *Quair* on the south. The *Lyne* rises in the southern declivity of *Cairn* hill, on the north-western limits of *Peebles-shire*; and collecting in a course of 21 miles the streamlets that drain the parishes of *Linton*, *Newlands*, *Kirkurd*, and *Lyne*, it consigns all their cognate waters to the *Tweed*. The *Lyne* has retained, through many a change, its British appellation, which is nothing more than the British *llyn*, signifying what flows, a fluid. The only stream in *Peebles-shire* which does not convey its waters to the *Tweed* is the *Megget*. Originating in two sources, the one rivulet from the declivities of *Cairn* law, and the other rill from the moss of *Winterhope*, the *Megget* drains the dreary parish of the *Megget*, and pours its collected waters into *St. Mary's loch*; whence they pass on to the *Yarrow* and the *Ettrick*, while both join the *Tweed*. Every water in *Tweeddale* produces trout, some of them par and some of them salmon; and each gives its usefulness, and each contributes its ornament.

Peebles-shire abounds in minerals. *Newlands* and *Linton* parishes supply the whole county with coals, except the eastern districts, which derive their coal and lime from the *Lothians*. Limestone also abounds, and happily most where there is the most coal. Marl also is found where the limestone exists. In *Linton* and *Newlands* are various beds of marl, of the white or shelly, and also the blue kind. In *Newlands* parish, on the estate of *La Mancha*, there is an endless variety of clays. It has, particularly, a very thick bed of fire clay, like that of *Stourbridge*. It has *alum slate* in abundance, and both red and yellow ochres, with veins of manganese. In *Linton* parish a small seam of fuller's earth has been discovered;

vered; Newlands and Linton parishes also abound with freestone. Between both those parishes, on the hilly ridge of Broomylees, there are several quarries of red freestone, which is of a firmer texture than the white. Whinstone is the prevailing rock throughout the county, but it is not much demanded. The slate quarries have long been famous. White marble, too, has been found in Linton parish; Newlands parish abounds in iron-ore and iron-stone; but it is not metallic enough to afford the carriage to distant founderies; there is said also to be copper and loadstone. In Leadlaw, a hill above Linton, several lead mines were formerly wrought; and some silver was extracted from the ore: the sinks or pits, which were wrought on Leadlaw, are still apparent; and even now bear the appropriate name of Silverholes. If credit may be given to the ancient historians, Boece and Buchanan, gold has been formerly found in Glen-gaber water, which traverses Megget parish, the poorest district (with all its gold) in Tweeddale.

Among other antiquities, this county boasts the grave of Merlin. Near the influx of Powfai with the Tweed, a thorn-tree marks the sacred spot, where lies inhumed the renowned prophet. Tradition has preserved his tale; superstition has repeated fables; and the finger of age points to the eye of curiosity his very grave. This ancient prophet was the cause of prophecy in others: and during King James's time, some seer foretold that,

“ When Tweed and Powfai meet at Merlin's grave,
 “ Scotland and England shall one monarch have.”

Doctor Pennycuik has recorded the fulfilment of this prophecy: On the same day, says the doctor, that our King James was crowned King of England, the river Tweed so far overflowed its banks that it met with Powfai at the said grave by such an extraordinary flood as had never been observed before nor since that time. Yet has the doctor left it undecided, whether the prophecy begat the flood or the flood the prophecy.

The shire town claims some notice. The name of *Peebles* implies, that some habitations were placed on the isthmus, which is formed by the junction of Peebles-water with the Tweed, during British times. At the commencement of the Scoto-Saxon period there was undoubtedly here a village, a church, a mill, and a brewhouse; and as early, perhaps, a royal castle, with a chapel and other accommodations, which a town can only supply. The kings resided occasionally at Peebles till the sad demise of Alexander III., who left it

marks of his munificence. When it became a royal burgh, with special privileges, is uncertain. It is certain, however, that it sent two representatives to the parliament of 1357, which was called to ratify and to provide the ransom of David II. David II. granted Peebles a charter, dated the 20th September 1367, which made it a royal borough; and which was confirmed by a charter of James II., and by another from King James VI. in 1621. Robert Bruce conferred on this burgh a free market, and there are several less important grants by other sovereigns. Doctor Pennycuik has given the following quaint and curious description of this town.

“ Peebles, the metropolis of the shire,
 “ Six times three praises doth from me require;
 “ Three streets, three ports, three bridges, it adorn,
 “ And three old steeples, by three churches, born;
 “ Three mills, to serve their town, in time of need,
 “ On Peebles water, and the river Tweed,
 “ Their arms are proper, and point furth their meaning,
 “ Three salmon fishes nimble counter-sweeming.”

This town contains 411 houses; the number of inhabitants is 2,088. In the county are 1,746 houses, and 8,735 people.

PERTHSHIRE.

THE county of Perth is one of the largest in Scotland. It may be considered as an inland district, because, although it comes in contact with the estuaries of two great rivers, it in no quarter extends to the shore of the ocean. Its extent in a right line from east to west, that is, from Blairgowrie to Benloi, amounts to 77 miles. Its breadth, from the Frith of Forth at Culrofs on the south, to the northern extremity of Athol, is not less than 68 miles. It contains 5000 square miles, that is, 3,200,000 Scottish acres, or 4,068,640 English acres. It is bounded on the east by the county of Forfar; on the south-east by the counties of Fife and Kinross; the Firth of Tay producing the separation of a considerable distance between it and Fife. Perthshire is bounded on the south by the Forth and the county of Stirling, and also by the small county of Clackmannan, which it embraces on two sides. It is bounded on the south-west by Dumbartonshire; on the west by Argyleshire; and on the north-west and north by Invernessshire and Aberdeenshire. The county contains, according to the common language of the country, the districts of Athol, Breadalbane, Rannoch, Strathearn, Balquhiddie, Monteath, Gowrie, Perth proper, and Stormont. All these divisions were in former times denominated *stewartries*, and were placed under the hereditary

ditary jurisdiction of the great proprietors. The county, however, is more naturally divided into the two districts of Highland and Lowland. The vast chain of Grampian mountains runs along the northern and north-western parts of the county, and a large portion of the area of Perthshire is occupied by these mountains. The southern part of the Grampians forms also the southern boundary of the Highlands of Scotland; and the territory to the south-east of the Grampians is considered as belonging to the Lowlands. Eighteen parishes in Perthshire belong to the Highlands, and 58 to the Lowlands; but the Highland parishes are of great extent, and some of them cover a tract of country equal to eight or ten parishes in the lower and more fertile districts.

The general aspect of this county, both from the extent of its surface, and from its including some of the wildest parts of the Highlands, as well as some of the most fertile territory in Scotland, is necessarily much diversified. Perhaps no district in the world exhibits scenes of more rugged and uncultivated magnificence, contrasted with scenes that have been adorned by skilful cultivation, and by all the arts of polished life.

It is unnecessary to say more concerning the celebrated and vast mountainous chain called the Grampians, than that they consist of enormous piles, from the exposed summits of many of which the soil has been washed by the beating of the winter storms which they have encountered for so many ages. Beneath the summit of the higher mountains, and where the rock breaks out of the surface, they generally consist of a moorish soil, considered, however, as greatly superior in value to some mountainous tracts in England. The vallies that wind among these mountains are generally extensive and cultivated. At the foot of the Grampians is the fertile district of Strathmore. This valley is bounded on the south by a chain called the Sidley or Sidlaw hills, running toward the north-east from Perth in a direction parallel to the Grampians. To the southward of the Sidlaw hills within this county the country descends toward the Frith of Tay, forming the district of the Carse of Gowrie. Strathearn succeeds to Strathmore, and is a sort of continuation of it westward. It is bounded on the south, to a considerable distance, by the chain called the Ochils, from which the country descends southward to the Frith of Forth. The south-western part of the county, containing the mountains of Benlady, Bencochon, and others, may be considered as the southern skirts of the Grampians, bounding to the north the upper valley of the Forth, which here becomes the extremity of the Lowlands.

The

The following are the heights of the mountains or other places in Perthshire which are most remarkable either on account of their elevation, or conspicuous on account of their situation and importance :

			Feet.
Dunsinnan Hill	—	—	1,040
King-seat Hill	—	—	1,179
Mordun Hill	—	—	640
Barra Hill	—	—	676
Belmont Castle	—	—	203
Birnam Hill	—	—	1,580
Junction of the rivers Isla and Tay			93
Tay Bridge	—	—	283
East end of Loch Tay		—	350
Farragon	—	—	2,584
Ben Lawers	—	—	4,015
Ben More	—	—	3,903
Schichallion	—	—	3,564
Athol House	—	—	504
Ben Gload	—	—	3,724
Ben Doig	—	—	3,550
Loch Earn	—	—	304
Tortum	—	—	1,400
Ben Chenzie (Strathearn)	—	—	2,922
Ben Vorlich	—	—	3,300
Ben Ledi	—	—	3,009
Demyer	—	—	1,345
Ben Clach (Ochils)	—	—	2,420

The waters of this county are numerous and important. The river *Forth*, after rising near the foot of Ben Ledi in Dunbartonshire, at the south-west corner of this county, proceeds along the parish of Aberfoyle in Perthshire, spreading itself abroad so as to form two lakes, called *Loch Conar* and *Loch Ard*; each of which is between two and three miles in length, but of a disproportionate breadth. In the Highlands of Scotland, the lakes of fresh water are usually nothing more than long valleys between the chains of mountain, in which the river at the foot of the mountain, not finding a ready passage for its waters, spreads itself out so as to assume a stagnating form: hence the lakes are usually of great length, but of moderate breadth.

The next chain of lakes, to the northward of the upper part of the *Forth*, has of late years become extremely celebrated. They are three in number: the uppermost is called *Loch Catharine*; its waters proceeding eastward, at some distance, spread-

spreading out, from *Loch Achrie*, below which is *Loch Venachar* or *Van-choir*; the waters of the whole uniting at the village of Callander with a stream from the north, constitute the river *Teath*, which flows into the Forth. The rugged tract along these lakes is called the Troffachs: they are situated about 10 miles west of Callander, and accessible by a carriage-road, going by the south limb of Ben Ledi, on the right is the forest of Glen Finglas, on the left Ben Venu, which was once a forest of the family of Monteath. Ben Venu is called the *Small Mountain* because it is less than Ben Ledi or Ben Lomond, from which it is almost equally distant, forming nearly a straight line with both.

The northern branch of the Teath forms three lakes, *Loch Doine*, *Loch Voil*, and one half of *Loch Lubnaig*. In this river, particularly about Callander, are considerable quantities of muscles, which some years ago afforded great profit to those who fished them, by the pearls they contained, which sold at high prices. This lucrative fishery was, however, soon exhausted; and it will probably require a considerable time before it can be resumed with profit, because none but old shells, which are crooked like a crescent, and which have undergone certain changes, produce pearls of any value.

The next river to the eastward, that flows into the Forth, is the river or water of *Allan*. The other stream of importance, connected with this county, that terminates in the Forth is the river *Devon* or *Dovan*; it rises in the Ochils, and passing by Dollar, Tillicoultry, and Alva, empties itself into the Forth nearly opposite to its source, and only about six miles distant from it. It runs a course, including its windings, of about 40 miles. This river is remarkable for several curiosities, which are frequently visited by travellers, called the Devil's or Deil's Mill, the Rumbling Bridge, and the Caldron Linn. The place called the Devil's Mill is about a mile below the church of Fossaway; it receives the name of mill from the noise of falling water which resembles the sound of a mill at work, and as this supposed labour is not intermitted on the Sabbath day, the patronage of such a profane establishment is naturally assigned to the devil. About 350 yards below the Devil's Mill stands the Rumbling Bridge. The rocks on each side stand so near that an arch of 22 feet span is sufficient to form a communication between the different banks of the river; but the depth from the bridge to the water is no less than 86 feet; and the want of a parapet prevents even the steadiest head from looking down this frightful chasm without a degree of terror. The water, both above and below the bridge, rushing from rock to rock, and forming a number of
little

little falls, produces a constant rumbling noise, which is much increased when the water is swollen by rains. On this account the people call it the Rumbling Bridge. At both ends of the bridge, and at various parts on the face of the rocks, are trees and bushes, where daws and hawks have their nests, and from which they are seen often flying forth. The whole furnishes a most romantic scene.

A mile farther down the river is the Caldron Linn. There are two falls of water; the uppermost fall is 34 feet in height, but is not perpendicular. The two falls are distant from each other 28 yards. In the space between the two falls are three round cavities which the water has formed in the rock, which have the appearance of large caldrons or boiling vessels, from which the name is derived. In the first there is the perpetual agitation of boiling water, the second is always covered with foam, and the third is constantly calm and placid.

To the northward are the waters of Perthshire, which flow into the Tay. The first of these is the *Earn*, which has its source at no great distance northward from Balquhiddy. It rises out of a lake called *Loch Earn*, in the neighbourhood of the mountain of Benvoirlich, that is, the mountain of the great lake. The Earn has several bridges; but the most distinguished are the bridge near Crieff, and that at the village called the Bridge of Earn. In its course it receives a variety of streams; such as the *Ruchil*, and the *May*.

Perthshire is also watered by the rivers *Almond* or *Amon*, and *Tay*. The lake called *Loch Dochart* contains a floating islet; a curiosity which is always recommended to the notice of strangers. This islet is 51 feet long and 29 broad. It appears to have been formed by the gradual intertexture of the roots and stems of some water plants. It moves before the wind, and may be pushed along with poles. Cattle going unsuspectingly to feed upon it are liable to be carried a voyage round the lake. Issuing from Loch Dochart, the river retains that name, and gives the appellation of Glen Dochart to the vale through which it now runs. At the eastern extremity of this valley the water is again detained in its course, and forms one of the most beautiful of the Scottish lakes, called *Loch Tay*. Before entering Loch Tay, however, the stream called the Dochart had been augmented by the waters of *Lochay*, a river which descends from the north-west. Loch Tay, from the village of Killin, at its upper or western extremity, to the village of Kenmore, at its eastern termination, is about 15 miles in length; its breadth is only from one to two miles. Its depth is very various, being from 15 to 100 fathoms. The banks of this lake are beautiful, populous,



lous, and fertile. Its winding shores are adorned with woods, and diversified by the appearances of the various mountains. Its waters have at times suffered violent and unaccountable agitations, for which no adequate cause can be assigned. On a small island covered with trees, near the foot of the loch, stand the ruins of the priory that was founded by Alexander the First of Scotland. Loch Tay abounds with salmon, pike, perch, eels, char, and trout. The river issuing from Loch Tay at the village of Kenmore, assumes the name of its parent lake, which name it retains till it mingles with the waters of the ocean. After leaving the lake, it speedily receives a great augmentation by the waters of the *Lyon*, and subsequently from those of the *Tummel*. This last river rises on the confines of Argyleshire; at first it receives the appellation of the *Garver*, which flowing eastward, forms a lake called *Loch Rannoch*, of about 12 miles in length, and from one to two in breadth. This lake receives from its northern side the waters of *Ericht*, which descend from *Loch Ericht*, a lake of which only a part is within this county. At the eastern or lower termination of Loch Rannoch, the river assumes the appellation of the *Tummel*; it afterwards forms a lake of no great extent, called *Loch Tummel*. The whole course of the *Tummel* is rapid and furious, forming everywhere the most romantic and picturesque cascades. One of its falls near its junction with the *Garry* is particularly grand. The rivers *Garry*, *Bruar*, and *Tilt*, unite their waters near Blair, which being in the territory of Athol is called Blair in Athol. About eight miles above Dunkeld the Tay receives the *Tummel*, and becomes a river of uncommon size and beauty. One of the objects most generally visited is the fall of the river *Bran*. This is a rapid stream, which descends from Glenqueich and the country around Amulrie, upon the south-west, towards Dunkeld on the north-east. Beyond the village of Inver on the bank of this stream, is an ornamented path of near a mile, which terminates in a building resembling a temple, and called *Ossian's Hall*; in its neighbourhood is *Ossian's Cave*, partly natural, partly artificial.

After issuing from Dunkeld, the Tay traverses the low country, a broad and deep river, and after receiving the waters of the *Isla*, bends its course south-west to Perth. The *Isla* has its source in the Grampian mountains. The *Ericht*, which falls into the *Isla* from its western side, is formed by the junction of the *Eardle*, and the *Shee* or *Blackwater*. The *Dean* flows from the lakes of Forfar in Angus, and loses itself in the *Isla*, half a mile north-north-west of the town of Meikle. The Tay having received the *Isla*, including all these streams,
from

from the east, and afterwards the Almond from the west, proceeds by Perth between the hill of Kinnoul on the east, and of Moncrieff on the west, in a south-east direction, till it meets the Earn; after which it proceeds eastward, forming the estuary or frith of Tay. After receiving the waters of the Earn, the estuary speedily expands to the breadth of three miles, but it contracts as it approaches Dundee, below which it pours its waters into the German ocean.

With regard to its agriculture, this county must be considered, for the sake of perspicuity, as consisting of three divisions. 1st, the Carse of Gowrie, which extends from east to west 16 miles along the northern shore of the Frith of Tay. It is a long narrow plain, bounded on the north by an ascent which terminates in the Sidlaw hills, which here form the southern boundary of Strathmore. The level territory of the Carse amounts in extent to about 18,000 acres, in general of an extremely rich and fertile clay soil. 2d, a division of much greater extent, including the whole remainder of the Lowland district, including the part of Strathmore which is in this county, together with those parts of the county whose streams flow into the Earn or into the Forth, but excluding the Highland districts included within the range of the Grampians. This district contains a variety of soils, some parts resembling the Carse of Gowrie, others considerably less productive, while a considerable portion is occupied by mosses and woods. 3d, the third district is that included within, or rather formed by the Grampian mountains, where the soil is various, but there are no large areas of culturable land.

The mineral productions of Perthshire are coal; but in small quantity, and at Culrofs only; lime, but the want of coal restricts its use; slate, principally of the species called grey slates; also plum-pudding-stone and various other useful stones.

The royal boroughs in this county are two, Perth and Culrofs.

The town of *Perth* is one of the handsomest of Scotland, and built upon a much more regular plan than any of them, with the exception of the new town of Edinburgh. It stands on a fine plain on the west side of the Tay, which is here a fine river. Three extensive tracts of very fertile country may be considered as having their termination at this spot. These are the Carse of Gowrie, Strathearn, and Strathmore. The town itself is surrounded by, or rather divides, a spacious plain, into what are called the north and south inches; each of which measures about a mile and a half in circumference. They are called inches, or islands, because they have the Tay

on the east, and on the other sides the branches of a canal which comes from the Almond, and which brings down a large proportion of that small river to Perth. Over the Tay is thrown a handsome bridge, consisting of ten arches, the whole length of which is 906 feet nine inches; its breadth 22 feet within the parapets. Of the ancient importance of Perth, while it was a royal residence, few vestiges exist. The parliament-house still remains, and is converted, as well as it possibly could, into dwelling-houses. There remain likewise the ancient houses of many of the nobility, which are now also modernized. The church in which John Knox preached at Perth is still standing, divided into three, named the east, the middle, and the west kirks.

The salmon fishery on the Tay is very extensive. In the spring, and part of the summer, fish go fresh, packed in ice, to the London market. The staple manufacture of Perth is linen, but a considerable quantity of cotton goods has been manufactured, which last branch is daily increasing. Leather is also manufactured, together with boots and shoes, and gloves in large quantities.

The grammar-school of Perth has at all times been extremely respectable. The academy too has long been well known. It is an excellent institution for young men intended for business. It was set on foot in 1761. A literary and antiquarian society was founded at Perth, December 16, 1784. A considerable collection has been made of books, original essays, ancient manuscripts, coins, medals, subjects of natural history, and other materials suitable to the design of the institution; but the society has not yet published any volumes of its transactions. There is also a general library well furnished with books, chiefly history. This town has 1,402 houses, and 14,878 inhabitants.

Culrofs is situated on the Frith of Forth, from which it stands on an abrupt ascent. One street runs from the sea northward; the remaining streets run along the shore at right angles with this. Hence, in the approach from the harbour, the town has a very picturesque appearance. Almost every house has a garden attached to it containing fruit trees. The town, in conjunction with Stirling, Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, and South Queensferry, sends a representative to parliament. Culrofs is remarkable for the ruins of a Cistercian abbey, founded in 1217 by Malcolm, Earl of Fife. It was placed on an elevation commanding a beautiful and extensive view of the Forth and the coast on both sides. Considerable remains of the monastery are yet extant. The abbey church stood on the north side of it, and had a tower in the middle, which was in 1789 still entire, as was also the west part of the church,

church, now used as the parochial kirk. The cloister is still discernible, and is now used by the minister as a garden. On the east and west sides are several remains of the offices of the house, particularly on the west side, where there was a building, from its size supposed to have been the refectory. West of this was the abbot's house. The town has 280 houses, and 1,502 inhabitants.

Scone, or *Scoon*, deserves notice, not on account of its extent or population (for it is a mere village, with 334 houses and 1,678 people), but for its palace, and as being anciently the residence of the Scottish kings, the place of their coronation, and the scene of many splendid actions. Here formerly stood an abbey, which was founded by Alexander the First in 1114, and dedicated to the Holy Trinity and St. Michael the Archangel. It is said to have been originally a seat of the Culdees, and was afterwards filled with canons of St. Augustine. At the Reformation, a mob from Dundee and Perth, rendered furious by the preaching of Knox, and impelled by private resentment, as well as the hope of plunder, destroyed both this ancient abbey and palace, which were very extensive. The abbey wall, as appears from the foundations which have been dug up, inclosed at least twelve acres of ground. Long before the foundation of this abbey, Scone appears to have been a place of note. Some writers call it the ancient capital of the Picts; but it was certainly the chief seat of the kings of Scotland as early as the time of Kenneth. In the church of this abbey was preserved the famous stone which was said to have first served Jacob as a pillow, and was afterward transported into Spain, where it was used as a seat of justice by Gothalus, a cotemporary with Moses. It afterwards found its way to Dunstaffnage, and continued there as the coronation chair, till the reign of Kenneth the Second, who removed it to Scone; and on it every Scottish king was crowned till the year 1296, when Edward the First took it to England, and it continues one of the appendages of royalty in Westminster Abbey. Edward removed the stone for the purpose of defeating an ancient prophecy, expressed in the following monkish lines:

*Ni fallat fatum, Scoti quocunque locatum
Invenient lapidem, regnare tenentur ibidem.*

Unless old prophecies and words are vain,
Where'er this stone is found the Scots shall reign.

The prediction was considered as verified when King James the Sixth ascended the English throne. A large house, which has usually received the appellation of the palace of Scone,

was begun to be built here by the Earl of Gowrie, and was completed by Sir David Murray of Gospatrick, a favourite of King James the Sixth, to whom that monarch, after the forfeiture of Gowrie, had granted it; and the new owner, in gratitude to his benefactor, put up the king's arms in several parts of the house.

Among the most distinguished remains of antiquity in this county are the hollow tower of Dunkeld, which is a stately hollow pillar without a stair-case, with only one door or entrance facing the north, the height of which is eight feet and a half, the breadth from jamb to jamb two feet and a half. Toward the top are four windows, equidistant, five feet nine inches in height, two feet two inches in breadth, and each supported by two small pillars. At the bottom are two rows of stones projecting from beneath, which served for the basis of a pedestal. The whole height of the pillar is 75 feet, and it consists of 64 rows or regular courses of hewn stone; the external circumference at the base is 48 feet, but diminishes somewhat toward the top; and the thickness of the wall is three feet and a half. This is called the round steeple of Abernethy, and supposed to be the only remains of a Pictish work in these parts. The other antiquities are Dunkeld abbey, of which the greater part is destroyed, and some portion of what remains is modernized; Donne castle, in the neighbourhood of the village of that name, a huge square building, the walls being 40 feet high and about ten thick. Tradition reports it to have been built by Murdoch, Duke of Albany. There are also several vestiges of the Romans, as roads and camps; and of the temples of Druids.

Perthshire has 22,932 houses, and 111,488 inhabitants.

RENFREWSHIRE.

THIS small county is styled by way of eminence the Barony, because it was the ancient patrimony of the Stewarts. It is bounded on the south-west by the hills which run along the north-eastern or northern part of Ayrshire; toward the west, the north, and partly toward the north-east, by the river Clyde, or the territory nearly adjoining to it; and on the east by Lanarkshire, without any particular natural line of separation. Its surface is agreeably varied with hill and dale; the soil is fertile, producing rye, barley, oats, beans, peas, flax, and some wheat, with good pasture. The waters are of no great magnitude, but they are rendered useful by the enterprize and industry of the inhabitants.

The

The principal streams are the White-cart, the Black-cart, and the Greif, all which unite and fall into the Clyde, below Inchinnan bridge. The locks are of small size, compared with others in Scotland; but they are of importance, and all protected and augmented as reservoirs of water, for giving motion to machinery.

The chief mineral productions are, Osmund stone, a very useful material for paving ovens; coal, of which there is a very remarkable field at Quarreltown; and lime.

In this county there is only one royal borough, that of *Renfrew*, which is also the head town of the county. It was made a royal borough by Robert Bruce, who granted it a charter. Together with Glasgow, Dumbarton, and Rutherglen, it elects a member to serve in parliament. During the seventeenth century, the town of Renfrew stood immediately upon the banks of the river Clyde, and vessels of considerable burthen were built close to the town; the river afterward deserting its ancient course, Renfrew became an inland town: but a channel has been made on the old bed of the river to preserve a communication by water with the Clyde. The town itself is about half a mile in length, but has little trade or manufactures. It has 428 houses, and 2,031 people.

The next town to be noticed is *Greenock*. After the river Clyde has turned from a north-west to a westerly direction, and swells out into a broad estuary or frith, the southern coast is indented by several convenient bays. The chief of these is the united bay of Greenock and Crawford's Dike, which stretches along the Frith about four miles and a half. It was formerly called the *Bay of St. Lawrence*, from a chapel near it dedicated to that saint. Greenock stands upon the shore of this bay, on a piece of level territory. The adjoining land is hilly, and from the distance of two miles, the town is overlooked by a chain of hills that is nearly 800 feet above the level of the sea. What is called the *town* of Greenock is a borough of barony, erected in 1757. There are two parish churches, a chapel of ease, and a chapel in which the service is performed in the Gælic tongue, for the benefit of the great numbers of Highlanders who reside here: beside these, there are several dissenting meetings. There is a harbour and an increasing commerce. The houses are 1,038, the inhabitants 17,458.

Further up the Frith of Clyde, at the distance of about three miles, is the town of *Port Glasgow*, or New Port Glasgow, or Newark. One part of the town stands upon the piece of ground which was obtained in feu from the magistrates of Glasgow; and to which, from its destination, they

gave an appropriate name; whereas the name of Newark belongs to the remainder of the town or the original village, which has now been considerably enlarged. The town stands on a flat and narrow piece of coast, which is nearly a dead level, and little higher than the high-water mark. Immediately behind, the hills rise to a considerable height. The river Clyde here is about two miles broad. The navigable part of it, called the Channel, lies along the New Port Glasgow shore, and is about 200 yards broad. New Port Glasgow has in no degree been able to keep pace with Greenock, and is not more than a fifth or a sixth of it in magnitude. The kind of trade carried on is similar to that of Greenock. It has 439 houses, and 3,865 people.

The most important town in this county, and one of the most considerable manufacturing towns in Scotland, is *Paisley*. It stands upon the banks of the river Cart, at the distance of six miles and a half westward from Glasgow. The old town is on the western side of the Cart, on elevated ground, which has a view upwards to Glasgow. The new town is on the eastern side of the Cart, and is regularly laid out; but the streets are not placed at right angles to each other. Paisley has three bridges, at convenient distances, over the Cart. Its streets are well paved; it occupies a large extent of ground, and contains many excellent buildings, the residence of its opulent manufacturers. It was erected into a borough of barony by James IV., in 1448. The town is divided into three parishes, and also contains some dissenting congregations. An hospital was erected here in 1752, for the support of aged persons and children of the poor connected with the town. The greatest inconvenience attending this, as well as some other towns and villages on the lower part of the Clyde, is the want of an abundant supply of good water. The manufactures of Paisley, the chief part of which have always been connected with the loom, form the principal object of curiosity in the history of this town. At first Paisley was celebrated for coarse chequered linen cloth, afterwards chequered linen handkerchiefs; some of them fine and beautifully variegated. These were succeeded by fabrics of a lighter and a more fanciful kind, consisting not only of plain lawns, but likewise those that were striped or chequered with cotton; and others that were ornamented with a great variety of figures; some of which last articles still continue to be manufactured here; to these have been added fine thread, silk gauze, in imitation of the fabric of Spitalfields; and since the improvements in the manufacture of cotton introduced by Arkwright, all the waters in the neighbourhood of Paisley have been applied to spinning mills, and

and all the villages in the neighbourhood and in Ayrshire filled with persons employed in weaving cotton goods. The ruins of the abbey of Paisley form a remarkably fine specimen of antique grandeur in desolation. In Paisley are 2,479 houses, and 31,179 inhabitants.

The population of the whole shire is 78,066; and their houses are 7,946.

ROSS-SHIRE.

THE county of Ross is one of the most extensive in Scotland, being eighty miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth. It extends across the island from the German ocean to the Atlantic, and contains, according to Templeman, 2775 square miles, or 1,776,000 acres, being larger than any county in England, Yorkshire excepted. It also contains the island of Lewis, one of the Hebrides. Ross is bounded by the county of Sutherland on the north, by the ocean and the small county of Cromarty on the east, by Invernesshire on the south, and by the ocean on the west. It comprehends the districts of Gairloch, Kintail, Glensheil, Loch Alsh, Loch Carion, Glenelchaig, &c. Its form is very irregular, being much indented by numerous lochs and friths.

The waters are too numerous to be all mentioned. Among the most considerable are, the *Friths* of *Dornoch*, *Cromarty*, and *Beaulie*, which advance into the county from the east coast. The west coast is very deeply indented with bays or arms of the sea, here called lochs, which advance to a great distance inland, amidst a country astonishingly wild and mountainous. One of the chief of these is *Loch Broom*. It consists of a sort of double bay. The first, or nearest the sea, is called *Loch Choro*, which terminates in a narrow strait; after which the sea again widens, forming Loch Broom, and extending to a great distance inland. As Loch Broom is one of the greatest retreats of the shoal of herrings, the banks of it have been made the seats of some fishing stations, established by the British Society; particularly Ulla Pool. There are two other fishing stations in the same bay; one at Isle Martin, five miles north of Ulla Pool, and another at Isle Tanera, a mile north of Isle Martin. Beside these two stations, the coast is indented with numerous safe bays. A small stream rises in the mountains, on the borders of Sutherlandshire, and gives name to the station of Ulla Pool. To the southward of Loch Broom is another extensive bay, called *Little Loch Broom*, which is long and narrow, but not of such extent as the former. To the

the southward of Loch Broom is a fresh water lake of great extent, *Loch Mari*, in the parish of Gairloch. It is about sixteen miles in length, and of various breadth, generally about one or two miles. It contains twenty-four small islands, beautified with fir trees, and a variety of other kinds of wood. On the largest island, called *Islan Mari*, are the remains of an ancient Druidical edifice, and around it a burial-place, where the inhabitants on the north side of the loch inter their dead. It discharges itself into an arm of the sea called *Loch Ew. Gairloch*, in the same neighbourhood, has been for many ages famous for the cod and herring fishing. To the southward, the district of Kintail is peninsulated by the narrow arms of the sea called *Loch Gairon* on the north, and *Loch Duich* and *Loch Long* on the south. These, like most of the other salt-water lochs or arms of the sea on the west coast, afford excellent fishing stations, and a safe retreat for ships. Beside the lochs which are connected with the sea, and *Loch Mari*, already mentioned, there are to be met with, in the vallies among the mountains of Ross-shire, considerable numbers of lakes of one, two, or three miles in length, some of which afford beautiful scenery.

It would be vain to attempt to specify the remarkable mountains, or even chains of mountains, in a country that is all mountainous, excepting the narrow tract on the east coast and the friths, which there advance from the German ocean. *Tulloch Ard*, however, a lofty mountain, in the district of Kintail, claims particular attention, on account of its importance in ancient times. Like the temple of Janus, it indicated peace or war; for, when war commenced, a barrel of burning tar on the highest peak was the signal, and in twenty-four hours all the tenants and vassals of Seaforth appeared at the castle of St. Donan, armed *pro aris et focis*. This mountain is the crest of Lord Seaforth's arms. *Ben-Uaisb*, in the parish of Kiltarn, on the east coast, towers above the rest of the mountains. It is seen across the Moray Frith, in the counties of Moray and Elgin, or of Bamff. It is perpetually covered with snow; and the reddendo or quit rent, from the family of Foulis, for the tenure of the forest of Uaish, is the payment of a snow-ball to his majesty, on any day of the year, if required; and it is said that a quantity of snow was sent to the Duke of Cumberland, when at Inverness, in the summer of 1746, to cool his wine.

The minerals hitherto discovered in this county are chiefly freestone and limestone of different sorts; some of them of the nature of marble. Marl is also found, and iron-stone abounds. A tradition exists, that it was smelted in a former age on the
banks

banks of the arm of the sea, called Loch Eu. In the northern district of the parish of Applecrofs is a copper mine. In the parish of Kincardine, on the farm of Dibsdale, stands one of the highest mountains, called Carn-chuinaig, on which stones have been found perfectly similar to those known by the name of cairngorms. Knockirny abounds with marble, white and party coloured. In the parish of Alness, a very rich ore of iron, which seemed to be of considerable extent, has been discovered. A vein of lead, rich in silver, has also been found in the same neighbourhood. In the parish of Kiltarn, in a rock on the banks of Aultnacaorach, *i. e.* the sheep burn, (a rivulet that falls into Aultgrande,) there are indications of lead ore. There are also several mineral springs.

Rofs has three royal boroughs, Tain, Dingwall, and Fortrose.

The principal of these is *Tain*, a market town, standing on the bay or frith of the same name. The trade of Tain is principally in its home markets, and annual fairs, as its bay is shallow and unsafe, except for fishing-boats or small craft. It has 514 houses, and 2,277 people.

Dingwall is a small town, consisting of a single street, situated on a branch of the Cromartie frith. The surrounding country is tolerably fertile, but the town enjoys little or no trade. It has 1,418 inhabitants, and 288 houses.

Fortrose, situate on Moray frith, comprizes two towns or villages, Rosemarkie and Canonry, united by a royal charter. It has the remains of a cathedral.

Rofs contains 52,291 inhabitants; the number of houses is 11,134.

ROXBURGHSHIRE.

THE appellation of this shire is obviously derived from the designation of the town, which, as it owed its existence to the *Burgh* upon a rocky peninsular, also owed to it the name of Roxburgh. Roxburghshire is the most southern county of North Britain, it extends from south-west to north-east 38 miles; and from south-east to north-west 27. The breadth, indeed, about the middle of it, is carried out to a larger extent, by a projection of the shire northward of the Tweed, between the streams of the Gala and the Leader. This county contains a superficies of 696 square miles, or 445,440 statute acres. The population being 33,682, allows 4,839 persons to a square mile. This county is divided by its waters into several districts. Teviotdale, which forms the great body of its ample extent, comprehends the district which is drained by

by the Teviot and its subservient streams. Liddesdale, which forms the south-west corner of Roxburghshire, on the borders of Northumberland and of Cumberland, comprehends the Alpine country which is drained by the Lid, the Hermitage, and other streams, which all send their kindred waters to the Solway Frith. The third division of Roxburghshire is that projection which extends northward of the Tweed, between the Gala and the Leader; and the fourth, or lower division, is that which, lying northward of the Tweed, is included in the Merse.

The southern parts of Roxburghshire are very mountainous. A remarkable range of hills runs quite across the country, from east to west; beginning with Whitelaw and Chillhill, on the northern declivity of the Cheviot mountains; and ending with Craikmuir on the source of Borthwick water, and even proceeding westward into Ayrshire. From those remarkable hills flow many streams into Teviotdale on the north, and into Northumberland, Liddesdale, Ewisdale, and Eskdale, on the south. Liddesdale is an Alpine region, which is, however, dry, and affords excellent pasturage. Several of its hills are conspicuous objects from afar. The interior of Teviotdale abounds more with fertile vallies than with great heights; yet, has it several hills in various places of its ample range, which attract notice either from their natural appearances, or incite curiosity by their memorable antiquities. Hounam-law emulates the Cheviot heights; and is the parent of the Kail, and Bowmont waters. Dunian hill rears its conical summit 1,031 feet above the sea level. Ruberslaw rises to the height of 1,419 feet above the same plain. Bonchester hill, though not so high, deserves more notice on account of the British strength on its summit, from which it derived its name. Burgh hill, in Cavers parish, though not remarkable for its height, merits notice from its ancient fort, which defended its crest, and gave it an appellation. In the same parish, Pen-crest-pen and Shelfhill-pen; and in Crailing parish, Penielheugh, are memorable for preserving, through successions of people, their British names. On the north of the Teviot the eminences which attract the greatest observation are the Minto-craigs, which rise to the height of 858 feet above the sea level; and which being formed of rocks, and interspersed with planting, are picturesque objects and real ornaments to Teviot's vale. In the northern part of Teviotdale the only eminences which merit particular notice, are the Eldon hills, which are distinguished in that somewhat level region by their singular appearance, and by the British and Roman strengths that were formed on their acclivities. In that

that division of Roxburghshire, which projects northward of the Tweed, the only hill which rises to a great height is William-law on the Gala water; and it commands an extensive prospect, and has on its summit a collection of stones that are called Bell's Cairn. The hills of this county are happily both ornamental and useful; they add much to the superficies of the shire, while they contribute much to its landscape, and still more to its pasturage: very few of them are bleak, and scarcely any of them rugged.

The lakes of this shire are few and small, yet it is well watered by a variety of streams which are at once ornamental and advantageous. The *Tweed's* "fair flood" enters at the influx of the Etterick; and winding through this variegated country for a course of thirty miles, it leaves Roxburghshire at the confluence of the Carham burn, having received in its "gently gliding flow," the Gala, the Allan, the Teviot, and the Eden. The Teviot rises in the Fan hill, one of the eminences which separate Roxburghshire from Dumfries-shire, and being swelled by several subservient streams, it meanders through its own *dale* for almost forty miles, when it falls into the Tweed. Besides the rivulets which rush down from their springs in their several mounts, and join the Teviot near its sources, this ample river receives the Borthwick and the *Ale* from the heights on its northern side, and the Allan, the Slitrig, the Rule, the Jed, the Oxnam, and the Kail, with their tributary streamlets, all springing from the kindred hills of the Cheviot range. The *Teviot* obtained its British name, like its kindred *Teivie* in Wales, from its quality of flooding its fertile haughs. The *Ale* rises from Ale Moor, in Selkirkshire, and coursing through Roxburghshire for twenty miles, mingles with the Teviot below Ancrum. The Borthwick water, which derived its modern name from a place on its borders, rises in Craikmuir on the south-east extremity of Selkirkshire; and flowing through a pastoral country, closes its course of thirteen miles by mingling with the Teviot, below the "braes of Braxholm." The Kail rises from the northern declivity of the same Cheviot mountains, which fend the Northumbrian Cocket to the southward; and quitting the hilly regions, the Kail meanders through a spacious plain till it mixes with the Teviot below Eckford mill, after a course of 18 miles through many clumps of full grown trees: the Kail derived its ancient name from the woody coverts which embellished its banks; *Cell* and *Celli* in the British, signifying a grove, and *Coille* in the Gaelic, a wood. Oxnam water also descends from those border mountains; and passing Oxnam, whence it borrowed its recent name, it pursues its winding course

course of twelve miles, till it mingles its congenerous waters below Crailing with the Teviot, the common receptacle of a million of rills. The "silvan Jed" rises from several sources in the declivity of the Carter-fell, one of the border hills, which also send from their southern declivity, through Northumberland, the North Tyne and the Reed; rushing through a rocky channel and woody vales, it winds round the Shire-town to which it gave the name of Jedworth, which corruption has converted into Jedburgh; and after a rapid course of almost twenty miles, pours its dusky waters into the Teviot below Bonjedworth. The *Rule* rises from three sources in the northern declivities of Winburgh hill, Fanna hill, and Needlaw, the same range that sends the Lidel southward to the Solway: the Rule rolls its rapid waters between well wooded banks; and after a meandering course of twelve miles, it mingles its congenerous stream with the Teviot below Spital; the Rule is merely the British *Rbull*, which means what moves briskly, what breaks out; a term very descriptive of this mountain torrent. This water may vie with the silvan Jed in the variety and value of its woods, but not in its picturesque scenery. The *Slitrig*, rising from several springs in the Leap hill, the Maiden paps, and Great-moor-hill, flows through hollow vales and green hills, during a rapid course of ten miles, till it falls into the Teviot below Hawick, driving many mills for that industrious town. *Allan* water issues from two springs in the northern declivity of the same ridge, which sends the Hermitage water to the south; and, after a short course through wealthy sheep-walks, pours its fair stream into the congenerous Teviot at Newmill. There is another *Allan* in the northern part of this shire, which mixes its waters with the Tweed above Melros. The *Bowmont*, which may have derived its modern name from its remarkable curvature round some of the mounts of Cheviot, drains the parishes of Morbottle and Yetholm; and joins its rapid waters with the Northumbrian *Till*. Such are the streams which drain the several districts of Teviotdale, and contribute to the elegance of its landscape, as well as to the fertility of its plains. Lidisdale is emptied of its waters by the Liddal, the Hermitage, and other currents which pour from the circumjacent heights. The *Liddal* was "unknown in song, though there be not a purer stream," till Armstrong "first drew air on its Arcadian banks." It rises near the sources of the Tine, from the southern declivities of Fanna hill, Note of the Gate, and Needlaw, the same border mountains which send the Rule and the Jed from their northern declivities into Teviotdale.

The

The Liddal rolls its rapid maze over a stony channel toward the western main. Liddisdale, the modern name of this district, is a corruption of the pleonastic name of Liddalsdale. The *Hermitage*, which borrows its modern name from Hermitage castle that stands on its woody banks, joins the Liddal at Westburnflat; the united stream now tumbles through a more extended valley till it quits Roxburghshire, at the influx of the Mareburn, after a rapid course of twenty miles. The Kershope, the Tweeden, the Tinnis, the Blackburn, and some smaller streams, all contribute to drain the pastoral district of Liddisdale, and all flow into the Lid. Of these mountain torrents, the *Kershope* is only famed for being a long contested boundary of England and Scotland, throughout its whole course of eight miles. The *Tweeden* is only remarkable for its water falls; but the *Blackburn* exhibits cataracts of the greatest variety and grandeur; one of those falls being thirty-eight feet of perpendicular height and twenty feet wide. The romantic vale of the Blackburn shows nature in her most diversified forms; sometimes beautiful, often awful, frequently sublime, and not unfrequently terrible; yet the greatest curiosity of the Blackburn is a natural bridge which, as it stretches across the stream five and fifty feet, joins the opposite hills together. Of the two divisions of Roxburghshire which run out on the northern side of the Tweed, the upper district is watered by the Allan in the centre; and by the Gala and the Leader on either side. The *Allan* takes its rise on the north extremity of this shire, near the farm of Allan Shaws; and running in a course of eight miles through a pastoral country which was once a forest, pours its clear waters into the congenial Tweed. The *Gala*, after leaving the southern limits of Edinburghshire, runs a somewhat winding course for six miles between the northern division of Roxburghshire on the east, and Selkirkshire on the west. The *Leader*, which falls down from the western end of the Lamermoor, and which Camden calls the riveret *Lauder*, flows through Lauderdale for six miles, when it falls into the Tweed below Drygrange. The *Leader-haugh*s are greatly celebrated in Scottish lyrics, and were indeed famous in feudal times for breeding the stateliest steeds; the Leader-haugh also were once dignified by the residence, at Ercildon, of Thomas the Rymer, the earliest of the Scottish poets. The lower division of northern Roxburghshire is also watered by the *Eden*, which flows gently along through the Merse for nine miles, when it enters the Tweed. Near Newtondon, the Eden, tumbling over a rock from the height of forty feet, forms a cataract of very diversified beauties, both agreeable and splendid.

For

For so mountainous a district, Roxburghshire produces few minerals. It is almost destitute of pit-coal, being chiefly indebted to the neighbouring countries of Northumberland and Mid-Lothian, for the coal which it uses for fuel; and the south-west parts of this county receive some supplies of coal from Dumfries-shire. Limestone exists abundantly in various districts of this shire; but it is not generally manufactured, from the scarcity of proper fuel. New quarries of limestone are however discovered, and additional manufactories of it are established, in proportion to the demand for so valuable an object of daily life. Marl of every kind is found in various parts of this shire, is much used in its agriculture, and has contributed greatly to its fertility. Freestone every where abounds in this shire, except in the north-west, and the south-eastern districts. Liddisdale has freestone of an excellent quality every where except near the source of Hermitage water, where there is only blue whinstone. The hills on the south of Teviotdale are chiefly composed of whinstone which are generally of the sort that contains numerous nodules and veins of agate, jasper and Scottish pebbles; and these are often found intermixed with the soil, and discovered in beds of rivers. Hardly a molehill is cast up in the neighbourhood of the Cheviot mountains which does not contain some of those pebbles, that are mostly of an amber colour with bluish veins and streaks of deep red. At Roberts-linn in Hobkirk parish, there are large rocks which are full of those pebbles, that are manufactured into seals, and formed into buttons of various kinds. These pebbles are sent to Sheffield and Birmingham for the purposes of diversified manufacture. Iron stones are mixed with the soil in several parts of this shire. The red clay soil of the northern district of Teviotdale contains a proportion of iron from two to six per cent. There are petrifying springs in various parts of this shire, and several chalybeate and sulphurine springs, which however are not very remarkable for their medical powers.

The only royal borough in the county is *Jedburgh*. This was originally a village, founded on the Jed by Bishop Egered, in the middle of the ninth century. It afterwards grew into a burgh and had a castle, but was for many ages exposed to all the changes and calamities of border conflicts and internal feuds. The castle having been some time in the hands of the English, was taken by the men of Teviotdale and razed to the ground in 1409. Jedburgh probably became the shire town after the fall of Roxburgh, under the influence of the Douglasses. While both remained in the allegiance of England, Hawick was the seat of the sheriff. When the first charter

was

was conferred on Jedburgh is uncertain ; as its ancient muniments were destroyed in times when destruction was the great object of hostility. The abbey was once a splendid edifice ; its ruins are still magnificent ; they serve as a parish-church.

In Roxburghshire are also the market towns of Kelso, Melros, Hawick and Yetholm.

When the monastery was removed to *Kelso* from Selkirk, David I. conferred on the monks this village with its lands and waters, free from all exaction. In May 1138, was founded the church, the same year wherein the church of Holyrood was built. The town of Kelso shared the fate of the abbey, during the hostile conflicts between the kindred nations in being often plundered and sometimes fired. David II. erected the town of Kelso, the barony of Bolden, and other lands of the monks, into a *free regality*. This was converted, in 1607, into a lordship in favour of Robert Kerr Earl of Roxburgh.

Old *Melros* may be traced back to an early age of Saxon times. When David re-established the monastery at Melros in 1136, he granted to the monks the villages and lands of Melros. The establishment of the monastery gave rise to a town, whereof the abbot was the superior ; the town shared in the fortunes of the monastery ; and regality came by a grant from the crown to Sir Thomas Hope, who preferred, however, the title of Haddington. The remains of the abbey still engage attention.

Hawick is a baronial town which belongs to the Duke of Buccleugh, who was compensated for its regality in 1748. During the thraldom of Roxburgh it was the shire town. As a border town it was often involved in ruin, during ages of hostility. In peaceful times it flourishes under its beneficent lord.

Yetholm is also a privileged town, with its weekly market on Wednesday, and its annual fairs, which collect the neighbouring people for mutual traffic, and where tinkers and gypsies abound, from the vicinity of the Cheviot hills.

Among the antiquities of this county, the most conspicuous is a stupendous work of the Britons, who once were the hardy tenants of Roxburghshire, called the *Catrail* or *Pictsworkditch*. This is probably the vast remain of the Romanized Britons, the children of the *Gadeni* and *Ottadini* of former times, who enjoyed this country after the abdication of the Roman power. It seems to have been constructed as a line of defence against the invading Saxons on the east, during the fifth century. After traversing Selkirkshire, the *Catrail* enters Roxburghshire, where it crosses the Borthwick water near Broadlee ; here its

remains are very visible; and it continues to be equally distinct till it reaches Slatehill moss; whence it runs in a south-east direction across the Teviot, through the farm of North-house to Dogcleugh hill, where it appears very obvious to every eye. From this position it proceeds south-east in a slanting direction across Allan water to Dod; passing in its course two hill forts on the left. From Dod, the Catrail courses eastward, near another British fort on Whitehill brae, and it now ascends the Carriage hill, whereon it appears very prominent to the eye and very instructive to the intellect. From this height it descends across Longside burn, where it becomes the known boundary of several estates. From this burn it traverses the northern base of the *Maidenpaps* to the Leapsteel; and thence holding its forward course by Robertslin and Cockspart, it crosses the dividing hills into Liddisdale; and again appears on the Dawstane burn, where the Scottish Aidan was defeated in 603, by the Saxon powers. Its vestiges may thence be traced nearly to the Peel-fell on the confines of Liddisdale, where this district bounds with Northumberland. From its remains the Catrail appears to have been a vast fosse at least twenty-six feet broad; having a rampart on either side of it from eight to ten feet high, which was formed of the matter that was thrown from the ditch. The whole course of the Catrail, from the vicinity of Gala-shiels in Selkirkshire, to Peel-fell on the borders of Northumberland, is upwards of forty-five miles, whereof eighteen of its course are within Roxburghshire. *Catrail* means, in the language of the constructors of it, the *dividing fence* or the *partition of defence*.

The name of *Roxburgh* can now only be classed among the antiquities of the shire; although it was once the principal town, the capital of the kingdom during the reign of David I., and the county town till it was ruined by the sad hostilities of the succession war. It was a place of coinage during the reign of King William. There was a coinage in the town of Roxburgh by James II., during the siege, perhaps, in 1460. Old Roxburgh town had an ancient seal, which has been engraved by the Antiquary Society of London. Roxburgh had a bridge, which connected the town with the opposite side of the Tweed. It was often destroyed during the inveterate hostilities of former ages; was sometimes repaired, and was afterwards so completely destroyed, that not a vestige of it can now be traced. At length the site both of the castle and the town, with other rights, were granted by James IV. to Walter Kerr of Cessford, a powerful baron on the borders.

Among

Among the eminent men born in this county may be named the poets Gavin Douglas, Thomson, and Armstrong, and General Elliott, whose glorious defence of Gibraltar procured him the title of Lord Heathfield and an honourable addition to his paternal arms.

The county of Roxburgh contains 33,682 inhabitants. The houses are 6,397.

Jedburgh has 676 houses, and 3,834 inhabitants.

Kelso 527 houses, and 4,196 inhabitants.

SELKIRKSHIRE.

As Roxburghshire derived its appellation from its castle, Selkirkshire obtained its name from its church; the town having borrowed a distinguished designation from the ancient Kirk, and the Sheriffwic its name from the town. Yet the area of this shire had a very different appellation, in still more early times. As the Tweed supplied a name to the vale through which it took its highest course; so the Etterick lent its Celtic appellation to the well wooded country through which it flowed. The Scoto-Saxon kings, finding sport throughout Etterick woodlands, very early established a hunting seat at Selkirk, which gave rise to the town; and in the same age, formed their hunting grounds into a forest; and the principal river, which watered and adorned those extensive woodlands, naturally gave its name to the country; hence, from the epoch of record to recent times, this country has been called in charters, *Etterick-forest*, and *The Forest*, from its pre-eminence for its *vert* and *venery*.

The country, which has thus been variously known through many an age, as Selkirkshire or Etterick forest, is twenty-seven miles long, from south-west to north-east, and sixteen miles broad, exclusive of a small detached part on the east. It contains a superficies of 257 square miles.

With the exception of a very narrow portion, on its eastern side, Selkirkshire may be said to be a continued alternation of hill and dale. Many of the eminences rise to considerable heights. The hills are in general clothed in green, though some parts of them are discoloured by russet. The center of the county, on the south of the Forth, does not rise to so great an elevation, as the base of the heights, on the north of that river. The valleys on the Etterick, the Yarrow, and on the upper streams of the Tweed, which may be deemed the center of southern Scotland, are not much more than five hundred feet above the level of the sea; while the level of the vale of

Badenoch, on the Spey, is at least a thousand feet above the sea level. The numerous valleys that separate the heights of this shire, are generally confined to a narrow space, by the acclivities on either side. Even the vales of the larger rivers, the Etterick, the Yarrow, the Tweed, and the Gala, seldom expand themselves to any great width, owing to the approximation of the mounts. From those vales however shoot out many *cleughs* and *hopes*, that run up a considerable distance between the heights; and each of those vales sends out its appropriate streamlet, which augments the rivers with its congenial waters.

Of lakes, Selkirkshire, though an interior and mountainous region, cannot boast. The only considerable collection of water is *St. Mary's loch* on the western extremity of this shire, which derived its name from a church, that was early dedicated to the Virgin, on its north-western margin. This lake is about three miles long, and about half a mile broad. It receives into its bosom the Yarrow and Megget waters, with several smaller streams; and its outlet is the Yarrow, which adds so much to the beauty and convenience of this shire. Immediately above St. Mary's lake, the loch of the *Lows* forms a much smaller basin on the Yarrow. There are here two lochs, which are only separated by a narrow and level neck of a hundred yards in length, that furnishes a channel for the Yarrow, from the loch above, to St. Mary's loch below. The loch of the Lows breeds chiefly perch and pike, which delight in such waters. These then are the lakes on the western extremity of this shire: on the south-east of it there are only a few small lochs; such as *Alemoor loch*, *Kingsmoor loch*, *Crooked loch*, *Shaws lochs*, *Oakermoor loch*, the overflowing of which collections is discharged by the upper drains of the Ale and Clayburn loch, that is emptied by Rankleburn, a feeder of the Etterick. The size of these lochs varies, from a mile and a half to a mile in circumference.

A country, consisting of green hills and "bushy dells," lying under a moist climate, must abound in rills and riverets; but the Etterick and the Yarrow are the principal drains of Selkirkshire. The *Etterick* rises among the mountains in the south-west extremity of the shire, at a place called from its source Etterick head. Among a thousand streamlets, which find oblivion in the Etterick, the most considerable are the *Rankleburn* and the *Tema-water*. After a course of five and twenty miles, the Etterick is joined by its rival Yarrow above Selkirk town; and the united stream falls into the Tweed three miles below.

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The *Yarrow* rises in those heights where the shires of Selkirk, Dunfries, and Peeblis meet. After traversing the loch of the Lows and St. Mary's loch, the Yarrow pushes forward with rapid violence, collecting in its devious course the Douglas burn, with other mountain streams, till it joins the Etterick above Selkirk town. Its whole course of one and twenty miles is on a rocky and gravelly bottom; and it is the roughest and most precipitous river in this country. It was from this prominent quality that it obtained from the British people its remarkable name: *Garw* in their language, *Garow* in the Cornish, and *Garbh*, which in the Gaelic has the same pronunciation, signify what is rough, or a torrent. The *Gala*, which is much less rapid than the Etterick and the Yarrow, as it descends through a flatter country, runs the greater part of its course over a gravelly bed. The streams of the *Ale* and *Borthwick*, have both their sources in the south-eastern district of Selkirkshire; yet, they soon quit its confined limits, and passing into Teviotdale, mingle their congenial waters with the Teviot. The only other stream which merits notice in this shire is the *Cadon Water*, which rises in the mountains on the northern extremity, and hastens its course to the Tweed in a rapid flow of nine miles.

Of minerals, none of the more useful have yet been found in this pastoral shire. There are not any metals, coal, lime, nor freestone in any part of this county; it has, however, abundance of whin-stone, and a good deal of granite. The want of coal is supplied, in some measure by many mosses, from which peats are dug, that are the chief fuel of the inhabitants. The higher ranks of people, however, and the farmers, burn coals, which are brought from the Lothians, a distance of more than thirty miles from the centre of this county. Though this shire does not enjoy the benefit of limestone it possesses excellent marl, several mosses, and Daker-moor loch, cover large beds of excellent shell marl.

Selkirk, the capital, is a small town pleasantly situated on a rising ground, enjoying an extensive prospect, especially up the course of the Etterick. It has 404 houses, and 2,098 people.

The whole county contains 5,070 inhabitants, and 1,013 houses.

STIRLINGSHIRE.

THE county of Stirling, (anciently called *Stryveling*, or *Striveling*,) is bounded on the north by Perthshire, on the east by Linglithgowshire, on the south by the counties of Lanark

and Dunbarton; which last also bounds it on the west. The greatest length from east to west is about forty-nine miles, and the greatest breadth from south to north twenty-three; but the medium length may be forty-four, and breadth sixteen miles. According to this calculation, it contains 704 square miles, being 450,560 acres English, or 358,336 Scottish acres. The parish of Alva is not included in this description, because, although it belongs to Stirlingshire, it is entirely separated from it, and surrounded on all sides by the small county of Clackmannan.

The mountains of this county are either those in the neighbourhood of Loch Lomond, of which Ben Lomond is the chief, or those which traverse the southern part of the county, through the parishes of Kilpatrick, Baldernock, Campsie, Kilsyth, and Denny. The northern ranges of these last are denominated the Lennox hills. The more southern branches receive their denomination from the parishes through which they pass, and are called Campsie fells, Kilsyth or Kilpatrick hills, &c.

Of the rivers in this county the *Forth* is the chief, and indeed though not the largest, it has always been accounted the most distinguished of the Scottish rivers. The *Carron* rises in the centre of the county, and running eastward enters the frith of Forth, about three miles from Falkirk. In its whole length it is, as its name denotes, a winding stream, and "the bonny links of Carron water" are deservedly celebrated. *Bannockburn* is more celebrated in history than important as a river, being only a small stream or burn, as its name implies. There are also streams called the *Avon*, the *Eurick*, the *Blane*, and the *Kelvin*, with some burns of smaller extent. The county contains no lakes of importance, unless *Loch Lomond* be considered as partially belonging to it. In the parish of Buchanan, near Loch Lomond, are three small lakes, *Dulochan*, *Loch Arclet*, and *Loch Amnancairn*. In the parish of Kilsyth, the great reservoir for the canal between Forth and Clyde, though formed artificially, may well be considered as holding the place of a lake. It is perhaps one of the largest and most beautiful artificial sheets of water in the kingdom. It is of an oval form, full three-quarters of a mile long, somewhat less than half-a-mile in breadth, and covers upward of seventy acres.

The north-western part of this county toward Loch Lomond is destitute of valuable minerals. The vicinity of the *Grampians* appears to cut off all the secondary strata, particularly of coal, which abound in the hills of the south, and are more of a secondary magnitude. The principal mountain, Ben Lomond, is chiefly composed of granite, interspersed with great

quantities of quartz. This last mineral is found near the top in immense masses, some of which must weigh several tons. These appear like patches of snow upon the mountain, even when seen from Luss. Considerable quantities of micaceous schistus are found even at the top; and many rocks, toward the base of the mountain, are entirely composed of this mineral. The shores of Loch Lomond are covered with rounded pebbles, composed chiefly of quartz, granite, and micaceous schistus, with some coarse red jasper, agreeable to the composition of the adjacent mountains, from which they have been washed by rivulets, and polished by the waves of the lakes. In the north-western part of the county, upon the Eurick and the upper part of the Forth, toward the centre of the county, peat is the ordinary fuel. In different parts of the hills running from Dunbarton to Stirling, stupendous piles of basaltic rocks are found. In the parish of Fintry is a grand colonnade of basaltic pillars, which rise in a hill called *Dun* or *Down*, at the end of the hill of Fintry. The range consists of seventy columns in front, which are of a gigantic stature; some of these separating in loose blocks, others apparently without joint from top to bottom. They stand perpendicular to the horizon, and rise to the height of fifty feet. Some of them are square, others pentagonal and hexagonal. In the parish of Campsie is abundance of coal and lime. The high ridge, however, called the Campsie Fells, contains no coal; though in what are called the secondary hills, this mineral is very abundant. The lofty ridge immediately after the coal terminates is perceived, from the bed of the torrents, to be composed in the following manner: At the base of the hill where the coal ceases are several layers of that sort of lime mixed with clay called here *camstone*, which is easily burned into a heavy lime, but must be slacked while hot. Immediately above the *camstone* are found at least a dozen strata of ironstone of excellent quality; the layers are of different degrees of thickness, with a soft slate intervening. These different strata or seams occupy about 200 feet of the height of the mountain. Continuing to ascend, the summit of the mountain is composed of fifteen layers of rock, called here *moorstone*. In the inferior hills, about the Glassart, is a large field of coal on both sides of the stream, at the depth on the north side of from seven to fifteen fathoms, and on the south, of nearly twenty-two fathoms. The coal is at an average from forty-two inches to four feet in thickness; it is covered by a bed of slate, above which is uniformly a limestone rock of four feet in thickness, and over that again slate of seven or eight feet in thickness. Below the coal is a whiter sort of lime thought inferior

inferior to that above. The coal here is said to be full of irregularities, called by the workmen coups, hitches, and dikes. The surface of the country is extremely irregular; and the minerals below ground appear to follow the rapid irregularities which occur upon the surface. The neighbouring parish of Baldernock, upon the Kelvin, contains likewise abundance of coal and limestone. In the parish of Kilsyth, iron-stone, limestone and freestone abound, and the coal, which has been wrought for ages, is deemed inexhaustible.

In the south-eastern part of the county coal also abounds; and there, in the parish of Larbert, are situated the celebrated Carron works, on the northern bank of the river of that name. The company has a charter for employing a capital of 150,000*l.* divided into 600 shares, and every holder of ten shares has a vote in the management. The Carron iron-works were first projected and established by Dr. Roebuck and Messrs. Cadell and Garbet. They draw their materials, not only from the immediate neighbourhood, but from a considerable distance inland or along the Forth. They have five blast furnaces for the manufacture of cast iron from the ore, or iron-stone. They have also a great variety of furnaces without an artificial blast, in which cast iron is melted, as at ordinary foundaries, for the manufacture of different sorts of goods. They likewise convert cast or pig iron into malleable iron. The pig iron is melted in a finery where coke is used; while hot it is beaten out into plates about an inch in thickness. These plates are afterwards broken into pieces about two inches square, for the convenience of scouring them, &c.; and they are then scoured in an iron cylinder which is connected with the water wheel; and when they are properly prepared by this operation, they are put into pots, which are made of fire clay, and in an air furnace, they are brought into a welding heat. In this state of preparation they are put under the hammer, and wrought into blooms; the blooms are heated in a chaffery or hollow fire, and then drawn into bars for various uses. The machinery is moved by the water of the river Carron; and for a supply in the time of drought, they have a reservoir of about thirty acres. But as this precaution is not enough in very dry seasons, they have moreover an engine for throwing back the water that it may be used again; and this engine raises four tons every stroke, and makes about seven strokes in a minute. Counting the people directly employed in the manufacture at Carron, those engaged in the mines and pits, and those who carry materials to the works and goods by sea, and otherwise immediately from them, the whole number may be estimated at two thousand.

Stirling

Stirling is the capital of this county. When viewed from a distance, it bears a great resemblance to the old town of Edinburgh, or what now constitutes the central ridge of that city. *Stirling* stands upon a hill which rises toward the west; the western extremity, as in Edinburgh, is a precipitous rock, upon which stands the castle, and the principal street of the town proceeds along the ridge eastward; but the declivity is less gradual, and sooner comes to a termination than in Edinburgh. The principal and most conspicuous object in this town undoubtedly is its castle. None can tell the date at which either the town or the castle was built; but in all ages *Stirling* and *Stirling* castle have been of the utmost importance in the history of Scotland: and from its castle-hill may be seen, at different distances, the scenes of the most sanguinary contests which have occurred in the Scottish history. The Greyfriars or Franciscan church of *Stirling*, built by King James the fifth in 1494, is a very handsome building, in the best style of what is called Gothic architecture. It is all of hewn stone, with an arched roof supported by two rows of pillars. It was originally one church, but since the reformation, has been divided by a partition wall, and at present makes two large and convenient places of worship, called the east and west churches. To the north-east of *Stirling* is a small village, called the *Abbey*, upon the north bank of the Forth, on the spot where the celebrated abbey of *Cambuskenneth* once stood. In ancient times its abbots were frequently denominated Abbots of *Stirling*. It was founded by David the first, in the year 1147, and filled with canons regular of the order of Saint Augustine, brought from Aroise, near Arras in France. There are several wealthy hospitals in *Stirling*, besides other extensive funds, for the relief of the poor, arising either from the funds of incorporations, voluntary subscriptions, or the collection at the church doors; the consequence of which is that the poor have multiplied greatly. It has even been said, that every twelfth person in *Sterling* receives charity; yet the managers of the poor's funds are believed to have at all times exerted a greater degree of circumspection and attention to that duty than is usual in most other places. The most ancient hospital is that endowed by Robert Spittal, tailor to King James the fifth. Another hospital was founded by John Allan, writer in *Stirling*, in 1725. Beside these charitable foundations, the merchant company have funds from which they defray the expence of educating and putting into business the children of poor guild brethren. The kirk session also expends considerable sums annually from the funds peculiarly entrusted to them.

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The kirk sessions of the burgher seceders are equally liberal. The town's funds, and those of each particular incorporation, are also, in part, expended in a similar manner; and after all, it is found necessary to have recourse to large voluntary subscriptions, to enable the magistrates to protect the town against the nuisance of begging poor.

Stirling has long been celebrated for its grammar school, which has sent into the world a number of celebrated men; and this place can boast of giving birth to some who have made a considerable figure in the literary world. Among these may be mentioned Dr. Robert Pollock, who was the first principal of the university of Edinburgh, and a very celebrated writer of his age; Dr. Henry, author of the History of Britain; and Dr. Moore, well known as the author of *Zeluco* and several other excellent works. The number of people in this town is 5,256, of houses 620.

The next place of importance in this county is the village of *Falkirk*. It is situated on an eminence above the Carfe, with a declivity on every side. It is chiefly remarkable on account of its great fairs. The greatest market for cattle in the island is held at Falkirk, three times a year, in August, September, and October. They are commonly called the *Trysts* of Falkirk, and have been frequented for upward of a century and a half. The place contains 8,838 people.

There are also many populous villages in this county, chiefly in the eastern part of it, as St. Ninian's, Upper and Lower Bannockburn, Balfron, Carron Shore, Camelon, Airth, Bainsford, &c. Falkirk and Kilsyth are, however, the only market-towns; although this last, considered as a village, is of no great importance. Campsie and Fintry are villages situated to the south, or in the centre of the county, considered as extending from the eastern to the western sea.

Stirlingshire has many memorials of antiquity, natural and artificial. The caves of Craigrostan have occasionally afforded shelter to heroes in adversity; one of them, called King Robert's Cave, was a retreat for Robert Bruce, after his defeat at Dalsie. They were also the fastnesses of the celebrated freebooter called Rob Roy M'Gregor, the Robinhood of Scotland. The followers of this man and their successors, in defiance of the prohibition of law, continued to levy the tribute called Black-mail, until the middle of the eighteenth century.

Among many other objects of curious antiquity are some cairns near Balderloch; the remains of the Roman wall, and Emanuel nunnery on the west bank of the Avon; nor can the names of Falkirk, Bannockburn, and Kilsyth be seen
among

among the places in this county without bringing to memory the exploits of Wallace, Bruce, and Montrose.

This county gave birth to the great historian and poet, George Buchanan, and was the residence of the celebrated John Napier, the inventor of logarithms.

In Stirlingshire are 7,822 houses, and 50,825 inhabitants.

SUTHERLANDSHIRE.

THIS is one of the most northern, and largest counties of Scotland, containing about 2,310 square miles, or 1,478,400 English acres; yet in consequence of the vast extent of its mountainous districts, its value is far from being considerable. It extends across the island from sea to sea; it is about eighty miles in length from north-west to south-east, and forty miles in breadth; bounded on the north-east by Caithness; on the east and south-east by the German ocean and the frith of Dornoch; on the south and south-west by Rossshire; on the west by the Atlantic ocean; and on the north by the Great North sea. In the language of the country, it comprehends the districts of Strathnaver on the north-east, Aint on the south-west, and Sutherland properly so called. Strathnaver was formerly a county of itself. It is in general hilly, in some parts so lofty, particularly in the district called Strathnaver, that the snow remains on the highest summit the whole year. The lower parts however of these heights, the less elevated eminences, and some of the vallies, afford a fine pasture, which maintains great numbers of black cattle and sheep; and a few districts are arable, producing some corn. It is said that even saffron has in some places been brought to perfection. The western and some of the eastern parts, bordering on the sea, are exposed to heavy storms and drift-sand, which has frequently injured the land. The air is more temperate than might be expected in so high a northern latitude. A considerable portion of the shire is overspread with forests or chafes, which are the haunts of great numbers of red deer and much game. The lochs, rivers, and streams are well stocked with fish, and frequented by wild fowl. The northern and southern sides are broken by several deep inlets, and along the shores are several small islands. The whole coast teems with fish.

On the northern side of the county, the first stream is that called *Holladale*, which forms a part of the boundary with Caithness. Next to the westward is the stream called *Naver* or *Navern*. It rises out of a lake of the same name in the parish of Far.

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The lake is no less than six miles in length, and three in breadth. Next to the westward, on the northern coast, is the river called *Torrysdale*. It arises out of the *Loch Loyal*, or *Laoghall*, in the parish of Tongue. Tongue bay, to the westward, is a long arm of the sea, skirted on each side with corn fields, inclosed pastures, and farm houses. It advances five miles into the land. To the westward the coast is high and rocky, and intersected by several small creeks; in one of which (Port Voisgaig) there is a quarry of grey slate, and another of excellent flags, both easily wrought, which are conveyed by boats to different parts of the country. The rocks along the coast are hollowed into caves, or formed into arches or pillars; some of them so regular that they seem to be the work of art. *Uaidhe Mhor Fbraisgill*, the great cave of Fraisgill, extends more than half a mile under ground. It is about fifty feet high, and twenty feet wide at the entrance, and grows narrow by degrees, till at last a man can scarcely creep in it. Its sides are variegated with a thousand colours, which are lost in each other with a delicacy and softness that no art can imitate. Upon entering the cave, the mind is impressed with a pleasing sort of awe, which is heightened by the solemn gloominess of the light, the clang of the sea birds that nestle in it, and the mournful dashing of the waves against the adjacent rocks.

Between the bay of Tongue and the next bay to the westward, which is called Loch Erriboll, there is a large tract of low marshy territory. The bay of Durness to the westward, along with loch Erriboll, insulate a considerable territory. Cape Wrath is to the westward of these. The shores are almost every where rocky, barren, and even destitute of vegetables. After passing Cape Wrath, the western coast of the county contains a variety of bays or arms of the sea, which form excellent harbours, where shipping of all sizes can enter and moor close to the land, at all hours of the day and night, in perfect safety. Of these harbours are *Loch Badeaut*, erroneously marked Badwell in some draughts of the coast; *Loch Calva*, which signifies literally, "Good Harbour;" *Laxford*, having several good anchorages, of which *Island an Erinich*, or, "The Irishman's Island," is the best. *Feanwick Moir*, near the entry, is a very safe place. Inchard has also a good harbour; and so has Kyles-aun, near Stirk's island. Great quantities of fish are caught on this coast. Every village, and almost every house has a boat, nets, and all sorts of fishing tackle. In the interior of the country are some lakes and waters. The two chief streams are *Irchard* and *Laxford*, in which salmon are caught, as well as abundance of trout. The lakes are

are stored with a variety of trout of all sizes. Of these *Loch Moir*, at the distance of seven or eight miles from the sea, is three miles long by half a mile broad, and never freezes in the severest season. *Loch Stalk* is two miles in length, and half a mile broad. Both these lochs are connected by a small stream, and out of the last mentioned runs the considerable river of Laxford. On the coast of Affint also, on the same western side of the county, are arms of the sea, into which vessels can retreat; and among the mountains are several inland lochs. Of the bays, or salt-water lochs, the most important are, *Loch Inver*, *Ardvar loch*, *Loch Nedd*, in which and various others herrings are caught in abundance. On the eastern coast *Helmisdale River* is the most northern. Descending from very lofty mountains, and having a considerable arable territory along its banks, its inundations often produce much mischief. To the southward is the stream called *Brera*, which arises from an inland loch of the same name. This loch is a beautiful sheet of water four miles in length, and near one in breadth. It has an island in the centre, which has some appearance of being artificial. Near the southern boundary of the county is *Loch Sheir*, which is about twenty miles long, and from one to two broad; the banks, especially on the south side, are covered with natural wood. The *Frith of Dornoch*, sometimes called the *Frith of Tain*, is that arm of the sea which divides the southern parts of Sutherland from the county of Ross. The entrance of this frith is nearly fifteen miles wide, and it gradually becomes narrower, till about three miles west of the town of Dornoch, its breadth is not above two measured miles, where there is a ferry boat, called the *Meikle Ferry*.

Sutherland has abundance of freestone, limestone, and slate. The limestone in many places assumes the form of marl. Among the mountains on the west coast the traces of ancient mines, and iron works are still apparent. Rock crystals and pebbles are found in many parts; and beautiful garnets are found on the coast in the parish of Tongue. There are several veins of coal; but the quality is far from good, and the veins are too small to be of consequence. Native gold is said to have been found in the *debris*, near the foot of the mountains. There are many veins of lead ore very rich in silver, but as yet none have been wrought. Ironstone is abundant. A rich vein of black oxide of manganese has been discovered near the frith of Dornoch.

Dornoch, the only town of the shire is a small place in decay, situated on the Murray Frith. It was once the see of a bishop, and the remains of the cathedral now form the parish church. It seems to be principally benefited by its four annual

nual fairs which are well attended. It contains 562 houses, and 2,362 inhabitants.

Over the whole of this country in different places are to be found vestiges of those ancient buildings, denominated *Picts houses*, which on the west coast are called *Duns*. In various parts also are to be seen vestiges of fortifications of different sorts. Some of them are old towers, and others consist of larger works which seem to have been intended as places of safety for considerable bodies of men or cattle.

The population of this shire amounts to 23,119. The number of houses is 4,324.

WIGTONSHIRE.

THE shire of Wigton forms the south western extremity of Scotland. It is bounded on the east by Kirkcudbright and Wigton bay; on the south and west by the Irish sea; and on the north by the county of Air. It contains 469 square miles, or 238,721 Scottish acres. The county is sometimes called Upper Galloway or West Galloway. It is divided into two districts, the shire and the stewartry. The shire district is named the shire of Wigtoun from its principal town.

The climate in general is healthy and the soil very fruitful in corn and grass; and though their oats are small and hard, they make excellent meal. In a word, this county produces all the necessaries of life; and is remarkable for its excellent wool, and those brisk little horses called Galloways.

Its waters are the rivers *Or*, *Dee*, *Kem*, *Cree*, *Losse*, *Bladenoch*, which rises from a loch of the same name, and *Tarff*. They all abound with salmon, and fall into the Irish sea. There are also many lakes of fresh water, but none of remarkable size, beauty, or importance. Wigton is well wooded, its chief woods are *Kenmure*, *Cree*, and *Garlies*. The soil is hilly, and there are some very high mountains, particularly *Cranesmoor* and *Crefall*, at the mouth of the Nith.

This county contains the Presbyteries of Kirkcudbright, Wigtoun, and Stranraven, making in all thirty-six parishes, besides several more that belong to the Presbytery of Dumfries. It has five sea-ports, Kirkcudbright, a very large, safe, and commodious harbour; Gavellan, a very secure harbour; and Nessock, Lochryan, and the bay of Luce.

The principal minerals in this county are lead, slate, and marble.

There are three royal boroughs in this county; Stranraer, Wigton,

Wigton, and Whithorn, and several small villages, such as Newton Douglas, Garleiston, and Port Partick.

Stranraer is situated at the bottom of the deep bay called *Lochryan*; it has no artificial harbour, but ships of three hundred tons burden can come to what is called the *road*, about half a mile from the town. The town is divided nearly in the middle by a little rivulet, over which there are several stone bridges. The castle now uninhabited is a whinstone building, with freestone corners and windows, of considerable height, and still very substantial.

Wigton, which gives its name to the shire, is a village of no great extent, situated near the mouth of Bladenoch water. Little business of any importance is carried on in it, and it contains only such mechanics and tradesmen as are necessary for the service of the neighbourhood.

Whithorn stands on the peninsula formed by the bay of Wigton and the bay of Luce, which advance into the country on each side of it. The town consists chiefly of one street, running from north to south, with several cross lanes. Near the centre of the town is a hall for public meetings, adorned with a spire and turrets; a church was founded here in the fourth century, dedicated to Saint Martin; nothing now remains of it but ruins and four Gothic arches, which make part of the present place of worship. A priory also existed here which was well endowed. The situation of the town of Portpatrick is well known, being the nearest point of the island of Great Britain to Ireland, and the best place for crossing from the one kingdom to the other, as the passage is only twenty miles over. It is called in old charters *Port Montgomery*, from a noble family of that name who once possessed extensive estates on both sides of the Irish channel; but it would appear that the most ancient popular name was *Portpatrick*, which a powerful family in vain attempted to alter. Four packet boats are kept for the purpose of forwarding the mail, and to convey travellers from the one island to the other. There is a light house on the Irish coast at Donaghadee, to render the passage as safe as possible.

Wigton has 287 houses, and 1,475 inhabitants.

The shire contains 4,792 habitations, and 22,918 persons.

THE ISLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

ALTHOUGH the several islands which form this portion of territory are, for the convenience of civil government, for the most part annexed to or incorporated with adjacent shires on the main land, it is considered most proper to describe them in their natural divisions. Each cluster of isles forms a region, and they are severally denominated, 1st, the *Western Isles*, more generally called the *Hebrides*, and by the earliest authors *Ebuda*; 2d, the *Northern Isles*, commonly known as the *Orkneys*, and anciently *Orcades*; and 3d, the isles still further to the north, or rather north-east, called the *Isles of Shetland*.

The general view of each of these territories is taken from Mr. Chalmers's *Caledonia*; the particular account of each isle from other writers.

THE HEBRIDES.—The stone monuments, which still exhibit in those isles specimens of the labour and genius of the first ages, attest the Hebrides to have been planted by the same Celtic people who settled South and North Britain. The same Druid temples, the same cairns, the same cromlechs, evince that the same people erected the same monuments, in the same age. The maritime people, who engaged in predatory expeditions to these islands during subsequent times, had neither leisure for such peaceful labours, nor inclination for such lasting memorials.

The Western Isles were known to the Roman geographers during the first century, by the name of the *Hæbrides*. This appellation, the etymology of which has defied conjecture, has been converted in modern times into *Hebrides*, by the blunder of transcription or the error of typography. These isles were seen rather than explored by the Roman fleet, which circumnavigated the British island, A. D. 84, by the command of *Agricola*; and they afterwards had the honour to be described by *Ptolemy*, from the local information of the Roman officers.

During the period of the Roman government in Britain, the Hebrides were governed, like *Caledonia*, by many petty chieftains, who were connected only by the slight ties of a common religion and language, and of similar customs and habits; but they owed no subjection to a superior, and scarcely acknowledged the connection arising from the same language, the same religion, and the same usages, which pointed to a common origin without allowing a common government. Yet the descendants of the original colonists would have been only few at the epoch of the abdication of the Roman government;
owing

owing to the barrenness of the soil, the infelicity of the climate, and the want of commerce. And they became the prey, during several ages, of every predatory tribe who navigated those seas, either in quest of plunder, or in search of settlements.

In giving an account of the second colonization of the Hebrides, which was made from opposite shores by different lineages of men, it is necessary for the purpose of distinctness to consider those isles under their natural divisions in two separate ranges, the *interior* and *exterior* Hebrides.

1. The interior range of the Hebrides stretches along the western shore of North Britain, from Ilay on the south, to Skye on the north; comprehending the intermediate islands of Mull, Jura, Colonsay, Lismore, Tiree, Coll, Egg, Muck, Canay, Rasay, with a number of adjacent islets; and with this division may be classed the islands of Bute, Arran, and the Cumbrays, within the Frith of Clyde.

2. The exterior range of the Hebrides, which lies much farther out in the western ocean, consists of the Lewis, Harris, North Uist, South Uist, Barra, Waterlay, and of a number of adjacent islets, forming a continued chain from north to south of 140 miles.

During the sixth, the seventh, and the eighth centuries, the *interior* Hebrides were settled by Gaelic colonists, many of whom migrated directly from Ireland, and still more from the Irish settlements in Argyle. *Iona*, one of the islets of this range, was given to Columba by his relation Conal, the Scottish king, as a secure retreat, whence he could send out his missionaries to propagate the Christian faith. The zealous Columbans soon established, in those islands, many cells, and in the progress of proselytism they extended their missions and diffused their instruction throughout the wide extent of the Hebrides. At the end of the eighth and during the ninth century, the Hebrides were frequently invaded by the Norwegian pirates, who sometimes sought for a settlement, but oftener prowled for prey. The same Scandinavian race who settled in the Orkney islands and on the coast of Caithness, extended their settlements in the ninth century to the exterior Hebrides, where they found but few of the first colonists to resist their intrusion. A subsequent body of their countrymen followed their tracks, and succeeded in forming settlements on the coast of Sutherland and around the shores of the interior Hebrides, where they tried to give stability to their settlements and to overawe the Gaelic inhabitants by building *burgs*, or forts of stone. The topography and antiquities of the Hebrides, when judiciously investigated, greatly help the scanty

notices of history, in tracing those obscure events during such barbarous times. The great body of the names of places in the Hebrides is Gaelic, many are Scandinavian, and a number of them are pleonastic compounds of both those languages. In the interior range of the Hebrides, the names of places are nearly all Gaelic, there being only a few Scandinavian names around the coasts of these islands: this fact shews that this division of the Hebrides was colonized wholly by the Irish and Scoto-Irish, before the Scandinavian rovers broke in upon them, during the ninth century; and it also shews, that the Scandinavian people only made a few settlements upon the shores of the interior range. In the exterior Hebrides, the greatest number of the names of places are Scandinavian, a large proportion of them are Gaelic, and many of them are pleonasm, which were formed by prefixing Gaelic epithets to the Scandinavian appellations. In this division of the Hebride isles, the Scandinavian names are not confined to the coasts, but are spread over the interior of each island, and are even applied to mountains and to waters. These facts demonstrate that the Scandinavian settlers preceded the Scoto-Irish in those distant islands; and found few of the first colonists who could hand down their traditions or transmit their topography; as the Scandinavian settlers new named almost all the hills, the waters, and other great features of nature.

The Western Islands, during the Scottish period, were inhabited partly by a Gaelic people and partly by a Scandinavian race, who yielded a doubtful obedience to the Norwegian kings. At the beginning of the Scoto-Saxon period, while a civil war raged in Scotland, Magnus the Bare-footed came in a powerful fleet among the Hebride isles, and asserted his rights and enforced his authority. Neither Donal-bane nor Edgar, the Scottish kings, were able to contend with his irresistible force, had their pretensions been founded on right, rather than assumed by historians from the suggestions of fiction. The policy of Alexander III. acquired, by treaty, in 1226, the kingdom of Man, and the isles of the Hebridian seas, which his power could neither have conquered nor retained. The price paid to the King of Norway for this important cession was a present sum of 4000 marks, and a yearly quit-rent of 100 marks for ever. The laws of Scotland were, in future, to prevail within the ceded isles; but the Scandinavian inhabitants of those regions were allowed freely to retire with their effects. In the fifteenth century, under the vigorous administration of James I., the lords of the Hebride isles and the chieftains of the Highlands, who had been completely lawless

lawless under the long regencies of late times, were obliged to submit to regular government.

These islands are situate between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude; they are very numerous, and some of considerable size. They are annexed to the several counties of Ross, Inverness, and Argyle, and form the shire of Bute.

The following islands are annexed to the shire of Ross:

1. *Lewis*.—This island is the most northern, and one of the largest of the Hebrides. It is connected with the island of Harris by a narrow isthmus, which at low water is left entirely dry, and even at high water is not completely covered. Harris belongs to Inverness-shire. Lewis is in its form irregular, but somewhat triangular; the length of the sides being from the point of Ness to Malista, forty miles; from Malista to Wallums twenty-one miles; from Wallums again to the point of Ness, thirty-six miles. The aspect of the country in this island is, in the interior parts, boggy and mountainous; upon the shore, flat, intersected by various arms of the sea, and destitute of wood, except only a few birches and hazles, with heath and some kindred shrubs. The soil is, in the interior country, a black peat earth or a light gravel; on the shore, a sand not unsusceptible of culture and fertilization. Springs, lakes, and rivulets, scattered through the island, furnish in all parts abundance of fresh water. Among its wild animals, this isle still has deer or roes. Prodigious numbers of wild fowl, of many different species, frequent the shores, the lakes, and the cliffs of the mountains; among others the eider goose, of which the down is so precious. Immense shoals of fishes of an innumerable diversity of species haunt the coasts; herrings, cod, ling, haddocks, whittings, skate, turbot, mackerel, &c. The island is greatly intersected by arms of the sea, called lochs, which run to a considerable distance inland, both from the eastern and western sides. One of the chief of these is *Loch Roag*, on the west, which is two leagues across at the entry, and runs up in a south-east direction about twelve miles through the island. This loch is covered with islands, several of them inhabited; and one of them is about eight miles long: its name is *Large Binera*. The whole of this curious loch abounds with safe places of anchorage, sufficient to hold the whole British navy. On the east coast, *Loch Seaforth* runs into the country to a great distance inland from the east; but *Loch Stornaway* is most important, on account of the town or village which stands upon it, and which is the capital of the island. Lewis is divided into four parishes; viz. Barvas, Lochs, Stornaway, and Uig. It has various small islets attached to it.

The inhabitants of the island of Lewis are scattered for the most part in single families or clusters of two or three families, around the coast or through the interior. Some large tracts are without inhabitants, while upon others the population is more closely assembled.

On the east side of the isle is the town or village of Stornaway, which, from a small origin, has of late, by the exertions of Lord Seaforth, arrived at a considerable size and extent. The harbour of Stornaway is excellent and well-frequented; and the principal source of employment is the prosecution of the white and herring fisheries in the bays; and here about thirty-five or forty vessels are annually fitted out. It is a port of the custom-house, and has a post-office, and a regular packet which sails every week with the mail and passengers. The houses in the town are generally well-built; and besides a neat and commodious custom-house, there is a town-house, an assembly room, an elegant church, and two commodious school-houses. In the bay of Stornaway, ships of any burthen have sufficient water, good ground, and no heavy sea can ever come into it.

2. *Rona*.—The island of Rona is reckoned the farthest to the north-west of any land in Europe. It is situated in the Northern Ocean, about sixteen leagues distant from Corassie Point, or the Butt of Lewis. It belongs to the parish of Barvas. It is reckoned a mile in length and half a mile in breadth. There is a temple in it dedicated to Saint Rouan. It is rented by one of the Nefs tacksmen at 4*l.* sterling *per annum*, who regularly every season sends a large open boat and brings from it some corn, butter, cheese, a few sheep, and sometimes a cow, besides some wild fowls and feathers. There were once five families residing upon it, but now there is only one, employed by the tacksmen as servants.

3. *Sulisker*.—The Rock Sulisker lies four leagues to the east of Rona; it is a quarter of a mile in circumference, and abounds with a great variety of sea-fowl. The boat which goes to Rona generally touches there for fowls and feathers.

4. *Flannan Isles*.—The Flannan Isles lie in a north-west direction from a promontory called Gallan Head, about twelve or fifteen miles in the ocean. They are not inhabited, and are famous for fattening sheep, each of which has every season two lambs at a time. Sheep brought from these isles do not live for any time on the island of Lewis. The people of the farms to which the islands are connected, go there once a-year to fleece their sheep and to kill sea-fowl, both for food and on account of their feathers. These islands are seven in number, and seem to be the same which Buchanan calls *Insula Sacra*.

5. *Shaint*

5. *Shaint Isles*.—In the channel between Lewis and Sky, a third of the way nearer the former than the latter, are three islands named Shaint or Holy Islands, well known to mariners. One of them, in particular, seems to have been dedicated to the Virgin Mary; it is named Moair or Mary's Island. In it are the remains of a popish chapel. Black cattle are pastured on them all, and they are famous for fattening sheep; but particularly some small rocks in their neighbourhood, which have grafs on their tops.

The Hebrides belonging to Inverness-shire are,

1. *St. Kilda*.—St. Kilda, or Hirta, is the most remote of the Scottish Western Isles, the nearest land to it being Harris, from which it is distant 60 miles in a west-south-west direction, and it is about 140 miles from the nearest point of the main land of Scotland. It is about three miles long from east to west, two broad from north to south, and about nine and a half in circumference. The whole island is fenced about with one continued perpendicular face of rock of prodigious height, except a part of the bay or landing-place lying toward the south-east, and even there the rocks are of great height, and the narrow passage to the top of the rock is so steep, that a few men with stones could prevent any hostile multitude from landing on the island. The bay is also difficult of access, as the tides and waves are so impetuous that, unless in a calm, it is extremely dangerous of approach. The surface of the island is rocky, rising into four high mountains, and covered to the depth of 16 or 18 inches with a blackish loam, except on the top of the hills, where is three feet depth of moss. The soil is well adapted for corn, but the natives prefer rearing sheep and killing wild fowl to the more toilsome business of husbandry, and raise only a small quantity of corn around the village. The soil, though naturally poor, is, however, rendered extremely fertile by the singular industry of the inhabitants, who manure their fields so as to convert them into a sort of garden. Barley and oats only are sown; and of the former about fifty bolls are generally brought every year to Harris. The grain is of a very superior quality to that produced in the other western isles. Potatoes have been lately introduced, and cabbages and other garden plants are only begun to be used. There are several springs which form a small burn that runs close by the village. This is situated about a quarter of a mile from the bay on the south-east, and all the inhabitants of the island live in it.

2. *Harris*.—The Island of Harris is a continuation southward of the Island of Lewis. Two bays, called East and West Tarbat, reach almost across the territory between Lewis and

Harris, leaving only a trifling isthmus forming the northern boundary of Harris. The sea to the south of Harris receives the name of the Sound of Harris. The island or peninsula of Harris has several islands attached to it, which may be divided into northern and southern isles. The mainland of Harris, extending from the sound on the south to Tarbat on the north, is 15 miles in length. At the southern extremity, its breadth is about six miles. It narrows gradually, but irregularly, toward the middle of this region, and from thence widens again toward the ridge of mountains that overhangs Tarbat; where, computing from the headlands on the west coast to those on the east, the breadth may be about eight miles. The whole of this district is mountainous and rocky, excepting the west coast, which is mostly bordered with a stripe of plain ground, and covered with verdure almost to the top of the hills. The east coast is indented all along with harbours, bays, and creeks, and exhibits to a spectator at sea, the most barren aspect, appearing to be a continued bare rock. Near the shore, however, a few green patches are to be seen, brought into culture by the laborious industry of the inhabitants. Kelp is the staple commodity of Harris, and, excepting the few cows sold to the drovers, forms the only valuable article of exportation which the country produces. In consequence of the high prices some years ago, and the encouragement held out to convert all the sea weed into kelp, the manufacture has been carried to great length, to the detriment of the corns and pastures, which have degenerated much, through want of the manure formerly afforded by the shores; all that is used for that purpose being what is cast ashore after the kelp-making season is past. No tree grows here, though nothing is more certain than that the country was once wooded all over. The gentlemen plant some bushes and shrubs in their gardens, which fade as soon as they overtop the walls.

The vast numbers of fresh-water lakes in this country abound with excellent black trout. Some good salmon likewise come into the foot of the rivulets, from the sea, in and before the spawning season; whales and cearban, or sail-fish, hover along the coast in the summer months; seals, in vast abundance, are to be seen throughout the year. The sea fish most beneficial to the people are, the white herring, dog-fish, blind-fish, cod, ling, skate, mackerel, codling, lythe, sythe, cuddy, and sand eel: there are some oysters and other shell fish. The island has a number of chalybeate springs, some copper and iron ore. The stone throughout the country is excellent for building: it is of various kinds: the most common is a hard blue whin of a beautiful gloss. In many places there is the best of granite,
capable

capable of a polish as fine as marble. Neither marble, nor limestone, nor freestone, has yet been discovered.

Isles belonging to Harris.—The northern isles inhabited are,

1. *Taransay*, a high rocky island about four miles long and one broad, lying in a western direction from the mouth of West Loch Tarbat.

2. *Scalpay*, a low heath-covered round island in the entrance to East Loch Tarbat. Its land dimensions are not easily ascertained, its parts being scarcely coherent, through a singular intervention of water lakes and arms of the sea jutting in through it in various directions. Its two extreme points from east to west may be computed three miles distant. On the east point is a light-house, built in 1788; and near the western extremity are two of the best natural harbours in the Hebrides. Mariners call it the Isle of Glafs.

3. *Scarp* is a high round rocky island, one compact mountain, of which the diameter at the base may be three miles. It is situated at the mouth of Loch Refort, and divided from Huskenish by a sound somewhat less than a mile broad at high water.

Of the uninhabited islands belonging to this division, several small ones are placed round the bays and harbours of Scalpay, and along all the creeks of the east coast of Harris. There is one in East Loch Tarbat, called *Skeētisvay*, about a mile long. In the West Loch is a long flat one called *Ifay*. Farther west, along the shore, are two called *Soay*. Within Scarp, at the mouth of Loch Refort, is a flat one called *Fladday*. All these names appear to be Danish. Four leagues north-west from Taransay is a large green island, called *Gáaskier*, which is a Gaelic name signifying the “Rock of Geese.” It is frequented by vast flocks of wild geese. The gentleman who possesses it in tack used for many years to send to it, from the Island of Taransay, twelve heifers and a bull, about the 12th of August; and they were brought back in high order, early in June, each cow having a calf. One year the whole flock perished; and to whatever cause the change may be imputed, it is certain that the pasture is now so far degenerated that it affords but scanty feeding to about twelve sheep of a very small size.

South Isles of Harris.—Of the south isles of Harris, four are inhabited, viz. Berneray, Pabbay, Calligray, and Eufay. Their general appearance is either flat or gently sloping from a little elevation in the middle.

1. *Berneray*, lying about a mile north of Uist, is a beautiful and fertile island, about four miles in length and one mile and a half in breadth. Its north-west side is much damaged by the breaking of the sand banks.

2. *Pabbay* lies about a league west of *Berneray*, is of a conical appearance, and rises to a peak considerably higher than any other part of the islands in the Sound. Its greatest diameter may measure about two miles and a half. This island was once the granary of *Harris*; but it has lost much of its fertility by the encroachment of the sand drift, which now covers its south-east side to the very top, exhibiting a most desolate appearance. The south-west side is verdant and well cultivated. The north-west side, exposed to the Atlantic, yields little or no vegetation, the spray of the sea in stormy weather washing over it.

3, 4. Within one league and a half east from *Berneray* lie the islands of *Calligray* and *Eufay*, separated from each other by a narrow sound, called *Caolas Scaire*, through which the tide passes with the most impetuous current known among these coasts. These islands lie in a line from south to north, along the south-west end of *Harris*. The intermediate opening is most commonly called the Sound of *Harris*, and is much frequented by shipping. *Calligray* is about two miles long and a mile broad. The south end is a deep moss, and for the most part uncultivated; the north end, a sandy soil well cultivated. To the northward of this island lies *Eufay*, in size and shape nearly the same as *Calligray*, being verdant all over, and having a good soil well cultivated.

Of the uninhabited islands belonging to the southern division, some are of considerable extent. A few may measure a mile in length and about half a mile in breadth. They are covered with heath and moss, and afford pretty good summer pasturage. The shores are lined with sea-weed. The people of the four islands already described repair to them, with their families and cattle, in the season of kelp manufacturing. Here most of them get peats for fuel, there being no moss in any of the inhabited islands of this district except *Calligray*; and to procure this necessary article, some of them have to go through a most dangerous navigation, to the distance of almost three leagues. The names of the largest isles are, *Hormitray*, *Hulmitray*, *Saartay*, *Veterfay*, *Neartay*, *Opsay*, *Vaaksay*, *Haay*, *Luursay*, *Terogay*, *Scarvay*, *Lingay*, *Groay*, *Gilesay*, *Sagay*, *Stromay*, *Skeilay*, and *Copay*. There are besides these a vast number of islets, holms, and high rocks, for each of which the people have names. It is remarkable that as the names of the larger isles terminate in *ay*, so the names of the islets generally terminate in *em*; e. g. *Tuem*, *Cuadem*, *Coddem*, &c. From an eminence near the Sound may be had a very curious view of the odd mixture of land, rock, and water, which fills the space betwixt the mainland of *Uist* and the mainland of *Harris*.

From Harris and its adjacent isles, a long chain of islands continues to the south or south-west. The whole chain, from the northern point of Lewis to its southern termination in a few small islands called the Bishop's Isles, is frequently denominated the Long Island.

1. *North Uist* is about twenty miles from east to west, and from eight to sixteen north to south; fifteen miles west from the island of Sky. The word *Uist* is said to be taken from the Scandinavian word *vist*, which signifies *west*, and was given by the Danes, when in possession of these countries, on account of its westerly situation. Along the whole of the west coast, and round the north end of this island, (being almost the only parts of it that are cultivated,) the country is low and level for the most part of a mile and a half from the shore to the moor. In this part of the country the soil is sandy, especially near the shore, and at some distance from it, between that and the moor, is a thin black ground, covering either a hard gravel or solid rock, interspersed in some places with flats and meadows. The rest of the country consists of a barren, soft, deep, moor ground, and mountains of no great height covered with heath: the cultivated part of the country is extremely pleasant and beautiful in summer and autumn, yielding, in favourable seasons, the most luxuriant crops of barley, and the richest pasture of white and red clover; but though, in the warm season of the year, no country in the Highlands can exhibit a more delightful prospect, yet, in the winter and spring, the country is quite naked and bare, there being no trees nor high grounds to shelter it from the inclemency of the weather. The grass is so soft and tender that the winter rains and snow take away its substance, so that cattle, during these seasons, feed partly upon corn and straw, and partly upon the sea-weed thrown, in time of bad weather, in great quantities upon the shore. That part of the coast washed by the Atlantic is inaccessible to vessels of any burden, and even to small boats, but in very good weather, on account of the rocks, shoals, and breakers that surround it. In bad weather, when the wind blows upon this part of the coast, the sea swells to a prodigious height, and rolls with inexpressible violence against the shores, exhibiting a prospect awfully grand beyond description. The coast on the east side of the country is bold, except where it is intersected by inlets of the sea, which form safe and commodious harbours. The harbour farthest to the northward is called Cheesebay, of easy access from the south-east, where vessels may ride with safety at all seasons of the year. South of this lies the harbour of Lochmaddie, much frequented by ships trading from Ireland
and

and the west of England and Scotland to the Baltic. It extends five or six miles into the country, and, on account of the great number of islands it contains, is subdivided into several harbours, which are all safe and commodious. Though there may be about 2,000 cows, yet the number exported yearly will not exceed 300, owing to the numbers which die of want and of distempers, to which they are here more liable than in any part of the Highlands. The number of horses may amount at least to 1,600. There are no farms fit for sheep; but every tenant endeavours to rear as many as will furnish him with a little mutton, and wool for clothing; they never thrive so well as to enable the tenant to export any. The number of sheep in the whole parish may amount to near 5,000, of a very small unmixed breed, covered with fine short wool, of which about 15 fleeces go to a stone. In no country can the climate be more variable than in this. There are instances of frost, snow, sleet, and deluges of rain, in the course of the same day. High gales of wind are frequent throughout the year; but particularly the vernal and autumnal equinoxes are attended with storms that sometimes prove fatal in their effects upon cattle and corn. The number of inhabitants is about 2,220; and in the whole island there are six places of public worship.

North Uist is encompassed with several small islands; the most remarkable of which are the *Eousmil*, a solid rock, about a quarter of a mile in circumference. It lies on the west side of North Uist, and is noted for the seal fishing about the end of October. At the distance of three leagues and a half more west, lie nine outer-more islands or rocks, covered with sea-fowl, and well situated for taking seals.

2. *Boreray*.—About a league to the northward of North Uist lies Boreray, a fertile island, a mile and a half long and half a mile broad.

3. *Oronsay*.—Between Boreray and the mainland of North Uist lies Oronsay, an island only at high water, half a mile long; the soil sandy for the most part, but fertile in favourable seasons.

4. *Vallay* is distant three miles westward from Oronsay, but still north of the mainland of North Uist; also an island only at high water, and separated from the shore when the tide is out by a sand two miles broad. It is a mile and a half long, not half a mile broad. It is beautiful, and fertile in corn and grass *only* when the summer is rainy. In winter and spring it is quite barren, the surface being covered with sand, which a gale from the north-west never fails to blow over it.

5. *Heisker*.—Two leagues to the north-west of North Uist lies

lies Heisker, nearly two miles in length, but very narrow. The soil is sandy, yields very little grass at any time, and is only valuable on account of its kelp shores and a small quantity of grain it produces.

6, 7. *Kirkbest* and *Ileray* lie stretched along the west coast of North Uist, pretty close to it, and separated from it and from one another by a sand which the sea overflows at high water. The former is one mile long, but very narrow: the soil sandy. The latter is three miles long, and half a mile broad in most places. The soil is partly sandy and partly black ground, yielding tolerable crops of barley, and pasture for cattle.

8. *Grimsay*. — South of the mainland of North Uist, between it and Benbecula, lies Grimsay, an island only at high water: it is barren, two miles in length, and covered with heath, but is very valuable on account of its kelp shores.

9. *Benbecula*, is separated from South Uist only by two shallow channels which at ebb are not above three or four feet deep. There are several small islands on the coast of these channels; and Benbecula is a square of three miles each way. The eastern parts of it are arable, where also is a bay for the shelter of small vessels. There are several small fresh-water lakes well stored with fish and fowl, and small forts built on the islands in those lakes.

10. *South Uist*. — This island is about twenty miles from north to south, and from six to eight wide, of an oblong form, and separated from Barra to the southward and westward by a channel or sound nearly eight or nine miles broad, which never ebbs. Toward the west side the soil is totally light and perfectly sandy, and the most part of it rendered quite useless by the severity of the constant storms that blow from the west with the force of the sea, during the winter and spring seasons. Farther back, there is one continued chain of swamp and lakes, abounding with the greatest variety of the finest trouts; and still to the eastward there are steep and lofty mountains, covered with heath and verdure, fit enough for pasturing black cattle, horses, sheep, and goats, during the summer and autumn months. As the soil to the west side is for the most part light and sandy, it of course must be barren of itself, without the force of manure. There are delightful fields to be seen covered with the finest natural grass in summer; yet, in the winter season, many of these very spots are covered over with drifted sand, in such a manner, that the least trace of verdure cannot be seen for many months. Were it not for the immense quantity of floating sea-ware that is thrown ashore

ashore during the winter storms, the inhabitants never could manure the ground, so as to raise a tolerable crop of any kind. Barley, oats, rye, and potatoes, with fish, are the chief productions for the support of the inhabitants. It ought to be observed also, that the produce of the country does not more than serve the people for nine months in the year. Kelp is the staple commodity, of which 1,100 tons are, on an average, manufactured in the island. About 440 or 480 head of cows and young oxen are annually exported. The number of sheep is about 7,000. The horses are small, but full of spirit, and hardy: their number about 800. There are a few goats, some deer and rabbits, with abundance of game, and birds of the aquatic kind, and birds of prey, as eagles, hawks, and falcons. The coasts abound with fish; and numbers of whales are seen at particular seasons of the year. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 3,450, of which 500 are Protestants, and the rest Roman Catholics.

11. *Erisca* is situated to the southward of South Uist. Its extent is trifling, and its population not numerous.

12. *Barray*. — To the southward of these is Barra or Barray, which, with a number of lesser islands, constitutes a parochial district, terminating the chain of isles which stretches from Lewis on the north, to Berneray or Bishop's Isle on the south. The principal islands, besides Barray, that are inhabited, are *Waterfay*, *Sanderay*, *Dabay*, *Mengalay*, and *Berneray*, to the south; *Flodday*, *Hellesay*, and *Gigay*, on the east; there is besides, a number of smaller islands not inhabited. The main island of Barray is eight computed miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, being intersected in different places by arms of the sea. The island of *Waterfay*, separated from the main island by a channel of one mile, is about three miles in length, and in some places a mile and a half broad. The next is *Sanderay*, distant five miles from Barray. It is two miles in length, two in breadth, and contains nine families. *Mengalay*, at the distance of twelve miles, two miles in length, and two miles in breadth, contains eight families. The last is *Berneray*, which from its being called the Bishop's Isle, seems to have once belonged to the bishop of the isles. It is sixteen miles distant from Barray, one mile in length, three-fourths of a mile in breadth, and contains three families. These islands are fertile in corn and grass, but liable to be blasted by the south-west winds, which frequently blow here. They are very difficult of access, on account of the strong currents running between them; and landing is sometimes not only difficult but hazardous. Close by the island of Mengalay is a high rock, with
very

very luxuriant grass growing at the top of it. The inhabitants of this island climb to the top, at the risk of their lives, and by means of a rope carry up their wedders to fatten.

13. *Kismul*, lies very near to Barra on the south; this with some adjacent isles belongs to the Macneals of Barra. The natives are said to have been formerly Papists, but their lord among other means of converting them, used that which Dr. Johnson has commemorated in the following anecdote. "The inhabitants of Rum," he says, "continued Papists for some time after the laird became a Protestant. Their adherence to their old religion was strengthened by the countenance of the laird's sister, a zealous Romanist, till one Sunday as they were going to mass under the conduct of their patroness, Maclean met them on the way, gave one of them a blow on the head with a *yellow stick*, I suppose a cane, for which the Earle had no name, and drove them to the kirk, from which they have never since departed. Since the use of this method of conversion, the inhabitants of Egg and Canna, who continue Papists, call the protestantism of Rum, the religion of the *yellow stick*."

14. *Sky*, is one of the largest of those called the Western Islands, being 47 miles in length, from north to south, and from 12 to 20 in breadth, from east to west; separated by a narrow channel from the county of Inverness. Toward the south-west is a chain of rude mountains, black and red, which according to Mr. Pennant, appears as if discoloured by fire, and on the east a long extent of lofty hills: there is, however a considerable quantity of level ground, which affords pasture, and is capable of tillage. In the mountains are found quarries of marble and limestone; with some appearance of mineral ores. Dr. Johnson, who visited *Sky*, says, "as this island lies in the fifty-seventh degree, the air cannot be supposed to have much warmth. *Sky* lies open on the west and north to a vast extent of ocean, and is cooled in the summer by perpetual ventilation, but by the same blasts is kept warm in winter. Their weather is not pleasing. Half the year is deluged with rain. From the autumnal to the vernal equinox, a dry day is hardly known, except when the showers are suspended by a tempest. Under such skies can be expected no great exuberance of vegetation. Their winter overtakes their summer, and their harvest lies upon the ground drenched with rain. The autumn struggles hard to produce some of our early fruit. We gathered gooseberries in September; but they were small, and the husk was thick. Their winter is seldom such as puts a stop to the growth of plants, or reduces the cattle to live wholly on the surplusage of the summer. In the year 1771, they had a severe season.
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The snow lay long on the ground, a calamity hardly known before. Part of their cattle died for want, part were unseasonably sold to buy sustenance for the owners. The soil, as in other countries, has its diversities. In some parts there is only a thin layer of earth spread upon a rock, which bears nothing but a short brown heath, and, perhaps, is not generally capable of any better product. There are many bogs or mosses of greater or less extent, where the soil cannot be supposed to want depth, though it is too wet for the plough. The vallies and the mountains are alike darkened with heath.

Some grass, however, grows here and there, and some happier spots of earth are capable of tillage. Their agriculture is laborious, and, perhaps, rather feeble than unskilful. Their chief manure is sea-weed, which when they lay to rot upon the field, gives them a better crop than those of the Highlands. They heap sea-shells upon the dunghill, which in time moulder into a fertilizing substance. When they find a vein of earth where they cannot use it, they dig it up, and add it to the mould of a more commodious place. Their corn grounds often lie in such intricacies among the craggs, that there is no room for the action of a plough. The soil is then turned up by manual labour, with an instrument called a crooked spade. The grain which they commit to the furrows thus tediously formed, is either oats or barley. They do not sow barley without very copious manure, and then they expect from it ten for one, an increase equal to that of better countries. When their grain is arrived at the state which they must consider as ripening, they do not cut, but pull the barley: to the oats they apply the sickle. Wheel carriages they have none, but make a frame of timber which is drawn by one horse with the two points behind pressing on the ground. On this they sometimes drag home their sheaves, but often convey them home in a kind of panier or frame of sticks on the horse's back. Their rocks abound with kelp, a sea plant, of which the ashes are melted into glass. They burn kelp in great quantities, and send it away in ships, which come regularly to purchase them. The cattle of Sky are not so small as is commonly believed. Since they have sent their beeves in great numbers to the southern marts, they have probably taken more care of their breed. Their horses are, like their cows, of a moderate size. The goats and the sheep are milked like their cows. A single meal of a goat is a quart, and of a sheep a pint. There are in Sky neither rats nor mice; but the weasel is so frequent, that he is heard in houses rattling behind chests or beds, as rats in England. The inhabitants of Sky, and of the other islands which I have seen, are commonly

monly of the middle stature, with fewer among them very tall or very short, than are seen in England." In the year 1746 Prince Charles Stuart concealed himself in a cave on this island for two nights.

15. *Raafay*. — "The length of *Raafay*," says Dr. Johnson, "is, by computation, fifteen miles, and the breadth two. These countries have never been measured, and the computation by miles is negligent and arbitrary. We observed in travelling, that the nominal and real distance of places had very little relation to each other. *Raafay* probably contains near a hundred square miles. It affords not much ground, notwithstanding its extent, either for tillage or pasture; for it is rough, rocky, and barren. The cattle often perish by falling from the precipices. It is like the other islands, I think, generally naked of shade, but it is naked by neglect; for the laird has an orchard, and very large forest trees grow about his house. Like other hilly countries it has many rivulets. One of the brooks turns a corn mill, and at least one produces trouts. In the streams or fresh lakes of the islands, I have never heard of any other fish than trouts and eels. *Raafay* has wild fowl in abundance, but neither deer, hares, nor rabbits. Attempts have been made to raise roebucks in *Raafay*, but without effect. The young ones it is extremely difficult to rear, and the old can very seldom be taken alive. Hares and rabbits can be more easily obtained. That they have few or none of either in *Sky*, they impute to the ravage of the foxes, and have therefore set, for some years past, a price upon their heads, which as the number was diminished, has been gradually raised, from three shillings and sixpence to a guinea, a sum so great in this part of the world, that in a short time *Sky* may be as free from foxes as England from wolves. The beasts of prey in the islands are foxes, otters, and weasels. The foxes are bigger than those of England; but the otters exceed ours in a far greater proportion. In *Raafay* they might have hares and rabbits, for they have no foxes. The corn of this island is but little. I saw the harvest of a small field. The women reaped the corn, and the men bound up the sheaves. The strokes of the sickle were timed by the modulation of the harvest song, in which all their voices were united. The ground of *Raafay* seems fitter for cattle than for corn; and of black cattle I suppose the number is very great. *Raafay* is supposed to have been very long inhabited. On one side of it they show caves into which the rude nations of the first ages retreated from the weather. These dreary vaults might have had other uses. A proof much stronger of the distance at which the first possessors of this island lived from
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the present time, is afforded by the stone heads of arrows which are very frequently picked up. The people call them *elf-bolts*, and believe that the fairies shoot them at the cattle. Near the house at Raafay is a chapel unroofed and ruinous, which has long been used only as a place of burial. About the churches in the islands are small squares inclosed with stone, which belong to particular families, as repositories for the dead. At Raafay there is one, I think for the proprietor, and one for some collateral house. In this island are also a petrifying spring, and a quarry of free-stone."

16. *Ronay*. — To the northward of Raafay is the island of Ronay, which is about four miles in length and nearly two in breadth. It is the property of Macleod of Raafay. It is rocky and barren, but affords pasture to 160 cattle. It has a good bay or harbour, but no vessels put into it unless forced by the weather or other accidents.

17. *Fladday*, is a green islet lying to the northward of Ronay. It is about two miles in circumference, and its coasts abound in fish.

18. *Haverfay*, *Vufay*, and *Soay*. — On the western side of Sky, attached to the parish of Braccadale, are the islands of Haverfay, Vufay, and Soay. These islands are not inhabited, but are only pendicles to the different farms on the shore that are opposite to them, and afford pasture for cattle during part of the summer and winter seasons.

19. *Egg*, an isle of which the computed circumference is ten miles: it has pasture lands, and some which may bear corn.

The islands which are reckoned among the Hebrides, and are annexed to Argyleshire, are,

1. *Canna*, which lies about half a mile from Rum, is in length three miles and breadth one, its surface is hilly, producing pasture for considerable numbers of cattle, but little corn. On the north-east side is good pasturage.

2. *Rum*, is nearly adjacent to Coll, and estimated at six miles long and four broad. It is represented as mountainous, rugged, and barren. In the hills are red deer. The horses are very small, but of a breed eminent for beauty. This isle is thinly inhabited; but it swarms with sea-fowl, especially puffins, which lay their eggs here in vast quantities.

3. *Muck* is two miles in length, and one in breadth, fruitful in corn and grafs, surrounded with rocks; and particularly noted for good hawks.

4. *Coll*. — This island is computed to be thirteen miles in length and three in breadth. Both the ends are the property of the Duke of Argyle, but the middle belongs to Maclean.

Coll

Col is not properly rocky; it is rather one continued rock, of a surface much diversified with protuberances, and covered with a thin layer of earth, which is often broken and discovers the stone. This island has many lochs, some of which have trouts and eels, and others have never yet been stocked. Their quadrupeds are horses, cows, sheep, and goats. They have neither deer, hares, nor rabbits. They have no vermin, except rats, which have been lately brought thither by sea, as to other places; and are free from serpents, frogs and toads. This island is unusually populous, and its coast produces excellent cod and ling.

5. *Tyrey*. — This island, situated about six miles west from Saint Columbus, is about eight miles in length and three in breadth. It abounds with corn, cattle, fish and fowl; has a fresh water lake with an island and an old castle in it; and has an harbour for boats used in those parts. The property of this island originally belonged to the Mackleans; but from them it passed to the Argyle family.

6. *Ulva*. — Ulva is a small isle lying south-east from Coll, and close upon the south-west shore of Mull. Its general aspect is barren and rocky. It has land fit as well for agriculture as for pasture. Fishes may be caught in abundance round the coast. Sea weeds grow on the shores. It has from the most ancient times been accounted fertile, and affords at present grain more than sufficient for the support of its inhabitants. It was long the seat of the ancient family of the M'Quarrys. It is little more than two miles in circumference. The sound of Ulva, or strait that divides it from Mull, affords safe anchoring ground for coasting vessels.

7. *Gometra*. — Adjacent to Ulva, on its western side, is the still smaller isle of Gometra, remarkable only for some basaltic pillars, and for two bays or harbours: one facing the south, and the other the north; both accounted safe for small vessels.

8. *Inch Kenneth*. — On the southern side of Ulva is Inch Kenneth, scarcely a mile distant from the coast of Mull. It may be about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. It is destitute of trees, but verdant; affording rich pasture, and sufficiently susceptible of tillage. It was once a seminary of monks, dependant on the latter island. The vestiges of a chapel still remain. Here Dr. Samuel Johnson was hospitably entertained by Sir Allan M'Lean and his daughters, who had an elegant residence on this sequestered spot.

9. *Staffa*. — This island, though it may be regarded as one of the greatest curiosities in the world, has till lately been scarcely known. It is just mentioned by Buchannan by name; and though the native Hebridians considered the cave as one

of the feats or palaces of their hero Fingal, it was never regarded by any intelligent traveller. A Mr. Leach seems to be among the first that noticed it. He was a native of England; and being on a visit at Drimnen in Morven, on one of his fishing excursions, he happened to go near it. Being struck with the singularity of its appearance, he landed upon it, and examined it particularly. This was in the year 1772. A few days afterwards Sir Joseph Banks, in his way to Iceland, cast anchor in the sound of Mull, opposite to Drimnen, and was immediately invited to land by Mr. M'Lean, who entertained him and his party with great hospitality. Here Mr. Leach related to Sir Joseph what he had seen; which excited his curiosity so strongly, that he could not resist the offer made by this gentleman to accompany him to Staffa. Sir Joseph Banks afterwards published, or rather allowed Mr. Pennant to publish, an account of his expedition, in such terms of admiration as excited great curiosity; and it has since been visited by a variety of persons. "We arrived," he says, "at the south-west part of the island, the seat of the most remarkable pillars; where we no sooner arrived than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though formed, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundation. The whole of that end of the island supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves; upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness, as the island itself formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; some of these above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost into the shape of those used in architecture. Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or the palaces built by man? Mere models or play-things! Imitations as diminutive as his works will always be when compared to those of nature! Where is now the boast of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himself to exceed his mistress, Nature, is here found in her possession; and here it has been for ages undescribed. Is not this the school where the art was originally studied? And what has been added to this by the whole Grecian school? a capital to ornament the column of Nature, of which they could execute only a model; and for that very capital they were obliged to a bush of acanthus. How amply does Nature repay those who study her wonderful works! With our minds full of such reflections, we proceeded along the shore, tread-

ing upon another Giant's Causeway, every stone being formed into a certain number of sides and angles, till in a short time we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers.

"The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broke off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour with a great deal of elegance: and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without: and the air within, being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tides, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp vapours with which natural caverns in general abound. We asked the name of it. Said our guide, 'The Cave of Fhinn.' 'What is Fhinn?' said we. 'Fhinn M'Coul, whom the translator of Ossian's works has called Fingal.' How fortunate, that in this cave we should meet with the remembrance of that chief, whose existence, as well as that of the whole epic poem, is almost doubted in England! Enough for the beauties of Staffa. I shall now proceed to describe it and its productions more philosophically.

"The little island of Staffa lies on the west coast of Mull, about three leagues north-east from Iona, or I-Columb-Kill. Its greatest length is about an English mile, and its breadth about half a one. On the west side of the isle is a small bay, where boats generally land; a little to the southward of which the first appearance of pillars are to be observed. They are small; and instead of being placed upright, lie down on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle. From thence you pass a small cave; above which the pillars, now grown a little larger, are inclining in all directions. In one place in particular, a small mass of them very much resembles the ribs of a ship. From hence, having passed the cave, which, if it is not low water, you must do in a boat, you come to the first ranges of pillars, which are still not above half as large as those a little beyond. Over against this place is a small island, called in Erse *Boo-sba-la*, or more properly *Buachaille*, or "the Herdsman," separated from the main by a channel not many fathoms wide. This whole island is composed of pillars without any stratum above them. They are still small, but by much the neatest formed of any about the place. The first division of the island, for at high water it is divided into two, makes a kind of a cone, the pillars converging together

towards the centre. On the other they are generally laid down flat; and in the front next to the main, you see how beautifully they are packed together; their ends coming out square with the bank which they form. All these have their transverse sections exact, and their surfaces smooth, which is by no means the case with the large ones, which are cracked in all directions. I much question, however, if any one in this whole island of Buachaille is two feet in diameter. The main island opposed to Boo-sla-la, and farther towards the north-west, is supported by ranges of pillars pretty erect; and though not tall (as they are not uncovered to the base) of large diameters; and at their feet is an irregular pavement, made by the upper sides of such as have been broken off, which extends as far under water as the eye can reach. Here the forms of the pillars are apparent: these are of three, four, five, six, and seven sides; but the numbers of five and six are by much the most prevalent. The largest I measured was of seven. It was four feet five inches in diameter. I shall give the measurement of its sides, and those of some other forms which I met with:

No. I. Four sides.

Diam. 1 foot 5 inches.

	Feet. Inches.	
First side	- 1	5
Second	- 1	1
Third	- 1	6
Fourth	- 1	1

No. II. Five sides.

Diam. 2 feet 10 inches.

	Feet. Inches.	
First side	- 1	10
Second	- 1	10
Third	- 1	5
Fourth	- 1	7½
Fifth	- 1	8

No. III. Six sides.

Diam. 3 feet 6 inches.

	Feet. Inches.	
First side	- 0	10
Second	- 2	2
Third	- 2	2
Fourth	- 1	11
Fifth	- 2	2
Sixth	- 2	9

No. IV. Seven sides.

Diam. 4 feet 5 inches.

	Feet. Inches.	
First side	- 2	10
Second	- 2	4
Third	- 1	10
Fourth	- 2	0
Fifth	- 1	1
Sixth	- 1	6
Seventh	- 1	3

“ The surfaces of these large pillars, in general, are rough and uneven, full of cracks in all directions. The transverse figures in the upright ones never fail to run in their true directions. The surfaces upon which we walked were often flat, having neither concavity nor convexity. The larger number, however, were concave, though some were very evidently
8 convex.

convex. In some places the interstices within the perpendicular figures were filled up with a yellow spar. In one place a vein passed in the mass of pillars, carrying here and there small threads of spar. Though they were broken and cracked through and through in all directions, yet their perpendicular figures might easily be traced. From whence it is easy to infer, that whatever the accident might have been that caused the dislocation, it happened after the formation of the pillars. From hence, proceeding along shore, you arrive at Fingal's Cave. The dimensions appear in the following table :

	Feet.	Inches.
Length of the cave from the rock without	371	6
From the pitch of the arch	250	0
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53	7
At the farther end	20	0
Height of the arch at the mouth	117	6
At the end	70	0
Height of an outside pillar	39	6
Of one at the north-west corner	54	0
Depth of water at the mouth	18	0
At the bottom	9	0

“ The cave runs into the rock in the direction of north-east by east by the compass. Proceeding farther to the north-west you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent description of which is past all description. Here they are bare to their very basis, and the stratum below them is also visible. In a short time it rises many feet above the water, and gives an opportunity of examining its quality. Its surface rough, and has often large lumps of stone sticking in it, as if half immersed. Itself, when broken, is composed of a thousand heterogeneous parts, which together have very much the appearance of a lava; and the more so as many of the lumps appear to be of the very same stone of which the pillars are formed. This whole stratum lies in an inclined position, dipping gradually towards the south-east. As hereabouts is the situation of the highest pillars, I shall mention my measurements of them and the different strata in this place, premising that the measurements were made with a line, held in the hand of a person who stood at the top of the cliff, and reaching to the bottom, to the lower end of which was tied a white mark, which was observed by one who staid below for the purpose. When this mark was set off from the water, the person below noted it down, and made signal to him

above, who made then a mark in his rope. Whenever this mark passed a notable place, the same signal was made, and the name of the place noted down as before. The line being all hauled up, and the distances between the marks measured and noted down, gave, when compared with the book kept below, the distances, as for instance, in the cave:

“No. I. in the book below, was called from the water to the foot of the first pillar, in the book above; No. I. gave 36 feet 8 inches, the highest of that ascent, which was composed of broken pillars.

No. I. *Pillar at the west corner of Fingal's Cave.*

		Feet.	Inches.
1. From the water to the foot of the pillar	-	12	10
2. Height of the pillar	-	37	3
3. Stratum above the pillar	-	66	9

No. II. *Fingal's Cave.*

1. From the water to the foot of the pillar	-	36	8
2. Height of the pillar	-	39	6
3. From the top of the pillar to the top of the arch	-	31	4
4. Thickness of the stratum above	-	34	4

By adding together the first three measurements, we got the height of the arch from the water

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No. III. *Corner pillar to the westward of Fingal's Cave.*

Stratum below the pillar of lava-like matter	-	11	0
Length of pillar	-	54	0
Stratum above the pillar	-	61	6

No. IV. *Another pillar to the westward.*

Stratum below the pillar	-	17	1
Height of the pillar	-	50	0
Stratum above	-	51	1

No. V. *Another pillar farther to the westward.*

Stratum below the pillar	-	19	8
Height of the pillar	-	55	1
Stratum above	-	54	7

The stratum above the pillars which is here mentioned is uniformly the same, consisting of numberless small pillars bending

ing and inclining in all directions; sometimes so irregularly, that the stones can only be said to have an inclination to assume a columnal form; in others more regular, but never breaking into or disturbing the stratum of large pillars, whose tops every where keep an uniform and irregular line. Proceeding now along shore, round the north end of the island, you arrive at *Oua-na-Scarve*, or the "Corvorant's Cave." Here the stratum under the pillars is lifted up very high: the pillars above it are considerably less than those at the north-west end of the island, but still very considerable. Beyond is a bay which cuts deep into the island, rendering it in that place not more than a quarter of a mile over. On the sides of this bay, especially beyond a little valley, which almost cuts the island in two, are two stages of pillars, but small; however having a stratum between them exactly the same as that above them, formed of innumerable little pillars, shaken out of their places, and leaning in all directions. Having passed this bay, the pillars totally cease. The rock is of dark brown stone; and no signs of regularity occur till you have passed round the south-east end of the island (a space almost as large as that occupied by the pillars), which you meet again on the west side, beginning to form themselves irregularly, as if the stratum had an inclination to that form, and soon arrive at the bending pillars where I began. The stone of which the pillars are formed is a coarse kind of basalt, very much resembling the Giant's Causeway in Ireland."

This account from Sir Joseph Banks is given chiefly because of the correct measurements of the basaltic columns, to take which must have been a work of much trouble and difficulty. It may be added, that on the north side of Staffa is a large cavern; and that when the waves of the surrounding ocean are agitated and dash themselves against this part of the rock, the approaching wave fills the cavern, and at the same time compresses the air within, which by the force of its spring or recoil, again forces out the water in white froth or smoke, with a report similar to the firing of cannon, which is heard at a great distance. It may be remarked, also, that the sea during winter, rushing into the caverns which penetrate the island, shakes the whole mass to its foundation. Some poor people that resided there one winter to take care of the cattle, were so terrified by the rocking of their miserable hut in tempestuous weather, that they seized the first opportunity of forsaking the island, believing that the strange concussions which they felt could proceed from nothing but the rage of an evil spirit. The Cave of Fingal is undoubtedly one of the most magnificent objects which the eye can behold; consisting, as it

does, of a massy roof of enormous weight resting on the tops of regular columns. The roof consists of fragments of pillars, the shafts of which have been washed away by the ocean. The fragments are cemented by calcareous matter; which, when contrasted with the dark purple hexagons formed by the ends of pillars, gives the whole the appearance of Mosaic work. Between the upright pillars is often found a cement, generally of a beautiful white colour, interspersed with rhomboidal and prismatic crystals, which are sometimes tinged with green. This substance is in general calcareous spar (crystallized carbonate of lime). In some instances, however, the space is filled up with infiltrations of beautiful white granite. In the very midst of the basaltic pillars, when broken, are to be found pieces of radiated zeolite. At the farther extremity of the Cave of Fingal is a small cave, which from certain passages sends forth an agreeable noise; hence it has received the name of *An-va-Vine*, or the "Melodious Cave."

Dr. Uno Van Troil, the learned bishop of Linckæ-peng, who visited Staffa along with Sir Joseph Banks, in his Letters on Iceland, gives the following animated account of this cave: "How magnificent are the remains we have of the porticoes of the ancients! And with what admiration do we behold the colonnades which adorn the principal buildings of our times! And yet every one who compares them with Fingal's Cave, formed by nature in the island of Staffa, must readily acknowledge that this piece of nature's architecture far surpasses every thing that invention, luxury, and taste, ever produced among the Greeks."

"This superb monument," says M. de St. Fond, "of a grand subterraneous combustion, the date of which has been lost in the lapse of ages, presents an appearance of order and regularity so wonderful, that it is difficult for the coldest observer, and one the least sensible to the phenomena which relate to the convulsions of the globe, not to be singularly astonished by this prodigy, which may be considered as a sort of natural palace. I (adds he) have seen many ancient volcanoes, and I have given descriptions of several superb basaltic causeways and delightful caverns in the midst of lavas, but I have never found any thing which comes near to this, or can bear any comparison with it, for the admirable regularity of the columns, the height of the arch, the situation, the form, the elegance of this production of nature, or its resemblance to the master-pieces of art, though this has had no share in its construction. It is therefore not at all surprising that tradition should have made it the abode of a hero."

10. St.

10. *St. Columbus, Icolm-Kill, or Iona.*—The island bearing these several names is the most renowned of the Hebrides. It is about three miles long and one broad, the land being flat and level toward the east, on the opposite rough and rocky, and productive in an unusual degree. Its first name is derived from its having been the residence of a saint and his disciples. It was also the abode of the bishop of the isles, and of some kings, and is said to have afforded a burial place to many Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian sovereigns. The second name is Irish, the third modern, and probably derived from the second. The following description is in the animated and energetic words of Dr. Johnson, in his tour to the Hebrides:

“We were now,” he says, “treading that illustrious island which was once the luminary of the Caledonian regions, whence savage clans and roving barbarians derived the benefit of knowledge and the blessings of religion. To abstract the mind from all local emotion would be impossible, if it were endeavoured, and would be foolish if it were possible. Whatever withdraws us from the power of our senses; whatever makes the past, the distant, or the future predominate over the present, advances us in the dignity of thinking beings. Far from me and from my friends be such frigid philosophy, as may conduct us indifferent and unmoved over any ground which has been dignified by wisdom, bravery, or virtue. That man is little to be envied whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona. The churches of the two convents are both standing, though unroofed. They were built of unhewn stone, but solid, and not inelegant. The episcopal church consists of two parts, separated by the belfry, and built at different times. The original church had, like others, the altar at one end and the tower at the other; but as it grew too small, another building of equal dimension was added, and the tower then was necessarily in the middle. That these edifices are of different ages seems evident. The arch of the first church is Roman, being part of a circle; that of the additional building is pointed, and therefore *Gothic* or *Saracenic*; the tower is firm, and wants only to be floored and covered. Of the chambers or cells belonging to the monks, there are some walls remaining, but nothing approaching to a complete apartment. The bottom of the church is so encumbered with mud and rubbish, that we could make no discoveries of curious inscriptions, and what there are have been already published. The place is said to be known where the black stones lie concealed, on which the old Highland chiefs, when they made contracts and alliances, used to take the oath,
which

which was considered as more sacred than any other obligation, and which could not be violated without the blackest infamy. In those days of violence and rapine, it was of great importance to impress upon savage minds the sanctity of an oath, by some particular and extraordinary circumstances. They would not have recourse to the black stones upon small or common occasions; and when they had established their faith by this tremendous sanction, inconstancy and treachery were no longer feared. The chapel of the nunnery is now used by the inhabitants as a kind of general cow-house, and the bottom is consequently too miry for examination. Some of the stones which covered the later abbesses have inscriptions, which might yet be read, if the chapel were cleansed. The roof of this, as of all the other buildings, is totally destroyed, not only because timber quickly decays when it is neglected, but because in an island utterly destitute of wood, it was wanted for use, and was consequently the first plunder of needy rapacity. The chancel of the nuns' chapel is covered with an arch of stone, to which time has done no injury; and a small apartment communicating with the choir, on the north side, like the chapter-house in cathedrals, roofed with stone in the same manner, is likewise entire. In one of the churches was a marble altar, which the superstition of the inhabitants has destroyed. Their opinion was, that a fragment of this stone was a defence against shipwrecks, fire, and miscarriages. In one corner of the church the basin for holy water is yet unbroken. The cemetery of the nunnery was, till very lately, regarded with such reverence, that only women were buried in it. These reliques of veneration always produce some mournful pleasure. I could have forgiven a great injury more easily than the violation of this imaginary sanctity. South of the chapel stand the walls of a large room, which was probably the hall or refectory of the nunnery. This apartment is capable of repair. Of the rest of the convent there are only fragments.

“ Besides the two principal churches, there are, I think, five chapels yet standing, and three more remembered. There are also crosses, of which two bear the names of St. John and St. Matthew. A large space of ground about these consecrated edifices is covered with grave stones, few of which have any inscription. He that surveys it, attended by an insular antiquary, may be told where the kings of many nations are buried; and if he loves to soothe his imagination with the thoughts that naturally rise in places where the great and the powerful lie mingled with the dust, let him listen in submissive

missive silence ; for if he asks any questions, his delight is at an end.

“ Iona has long enjoyed, without any very credible attestation, the honour of being reputed the cemetery of the Scottish kings. It is not unlikely, that, when the opinion of local sanctity was prevalent, the chieftains of the isles, and perhaps some of the Norwegian or Irish princes, were repositied in this venerable inclosure. But by whom the subterraneous vaults are peopled, is now utterly unknown. The graves are very numerous, and some of them undoubtedly contain the remains of men who did not expect to be so soon forgotten.

“ Not far from this awful ground may be traced the garden of the monastery : the fish-ponds are yet discernible ; and the aqueduct which supplied them is still in use.

“ There remains a broken building, which is called the bishop’s house, I know not by what authority. It was once the residence of some man above the common rank, for it has two stories and a chimney. We were shewn a chimney at the other end, which was only a niche without perforation ; but so much does antiquarian credulity or patriotic vanity prevail, that it was not much more safe to trust the eye of our instructor than the memory.

“ There is in the island one house more, and only one, that has a chimney ; we entered it, and found it neither wanting repair nor inhabitants ; but to the farmers who now possess it, the chimney is of no great value ; for their fire was made on the floor in the middle of the room, and notwithstanding the dignity of their mansion, they rejoiced, like their neighbours, in the comforts of smoke.

“ It is observed that ecclesiastical colleges are always in the most pleasant and fruitful places. While the world allowed the monks their choice, it is surely no dishonour that they chose well. This island is remarkably fruitful. The village near the churches is said to contain seventy families, which, at five in a family, is more than a hundred inhabitants to a mile. There are perhaps other villages ; yet both corn and cattle are annually exported.

“ But the fruitfulness of Iona is now its whole prosperity. The inhabitants are remarkably gross, and remarkably neglected : I know not if they are visited by any minister. The island, which was once the metropolis of learning and piety, has now no school for education nor temple for worship, only two inhabitants that can speak English, and not one that can write or read. The people are of the clan of Maclean.”

11. *Mull*.—The Isle of Mull is separated from Argyleshire, to which it belongs, by a narrow passage called the *Sound of Mull*.

Mull. The shape is very irregular; toward the east, it tends to a round; on the west it is hollow, and indented with considerable lochs and bays, which contain several small islands. From north to south it is about 22 miles; from east to west, at the southern extremity, it is as much, but towards the north, not more than eight; nor is any part of the island six miles from the sea. The bays form some good harbours. It affords good pasture, barley and oats, and plenty of cattle, deer, fish, fowl, other game, and very fine hawks. The air is temperate, the cold and moist being qualified by the breezes from the mountains. The bay of Duart, on the west side, is a good anchoring place. There is a castle at Duart, and two more. Here are several fresh-water lakes full of trout, &c., and several rivers which afford salmon, and abound with black muscles which breed pearl. There are no villages except Tobermorey, near the northern point, where a fishing-station has been erected. This island has only two churches, but there are the ruins of several more places of devotion, which are suffered to go to decay; and the ruins of several ancient castles still remain. Mull is environed with several small isles, some of which are fruitful and some impregnable. The bay called Loch-leffan abounds with herring and shell-fish. In the Sound or Bay of Mull, betwixt this isle and Lochabar, a great ship called the Florida, one of the Spanish invincible armada, was lost after their defeat by the English fleet in the Straits of Dover, attempting to escape north about, in the year 1588. Many of the guns and valuable effects have from time to time been got out of her by divers.

12. *Lismore*, otherwise called *Lessimore*.—This island is about nine miles long and one and a half broad, and situated in the mouth of Loch Yiol, or Linnhe, near the coast of the county of Argyle. It is supposed to have been once clothed with forests, but at present bears little wood. The ground appears to be fertile, the lesser vegetables grow with uncommon vigour, and the chief produce of the land is oats and bear, a species of barley. The parts that are not arable are filled with the tips of sharp rocks peeping above the surface. The land is in general low, and the strata lime-stone. This island had been the seat of the bishop of Argyle; the see was disjoined from that of Dunkeld about the year 1200, at the request of John the Englishman, bishop of that diocese. There are no reliques of the cathedral or the bishop's house. The inhabitants are poor, the cattle small, and their horses weak and short lived.

13. *Kerrera*.—Southward to the coast of Lorn is the island of Kerrera, situated about eight miles from the island of Mull, and one mile from the mainland of the district of Lorn. It is
four

four miles in length and two in breadth, and is included in the parish of Kilbride. It is very hilly, and many of the rocks have a volcanic appearance. It possesses two good harbours, called the Arintraive and Horse-shoe Bay.

14. *Easdale*.—Farther south from the same coast is a group of isles, which are noted on account of the valuable slates which they produce. The principal of them is Easdale or Easdale. It is advantageously situated within a few minutes sailing to every vessel that passes through the Sound of Mull round the western coast of Scotland, whether bound for the Baltic, Ireland, Leith, or London. A fine bridge has lately been built, which connects the island with the main land. The island is nearly circular, about one mile and a half in diameter; and is celebrated for its having afforded the best and greatest quantity of slate of any spot of equal extent in Great Britain. The slate occupies the whole island, traversed at many places with basaltic veins and thin layers of quartzose and calcareous stones. The slate has been quarried here upward of a hundred years.

15. *Scarba* is a lofty islet five miles long, chiefly covered with heath, and little cultivated.

16, 17, 18. *Lunga, Balnanaigh, Shuna*.—Adjoining to Scarba is Lunga, which is not so mountainous, and is about two miles long and half a mile broad. Balnanaigh is about a mile in circumference, and is all a slate quarry. This quarry has been worked for many years back, and found to yield very good slate. Shuna and the other neighbouring small isles abound in strata of slate.

19. *Jura*.—Jura, the most rugged of the Hebrides, is about thirty-four miles long and ten broad, and composed of vast mountains naked and incapable of cultivation. As might be expected from its sterility, it is scantily peopled. About 400 head of cattle are annually sold to graziers: a few sheep are bred, which have good fleeces, and a considerable number of goats. It produces some corn for the consumption of its inhabitants, but their chief diet is potatoes and fish. Much of the land, even where capable of improvement, is in a state of nature. The most singular features of this island are the paps of Jura, round insulated mountains formed of vast masses of stone, covered with moss at bottom, but bare at their summits. One of these, but not the most lofty, is 2,350 feet high. The surface of the island is varied with several lakes, and its coast affords two or three bays or anchoring places. The air is peculiarly salubrious.

North of Jura is a tremendous whirlpool called Corryvrechan, a vortex about a mile in diameter, in which, during flood, the

the sea rages with a horrible degree of fury; but at low water it may be crossed without danger.

20, 21. *Colonsa* and *Oronsa*.—These are two isles united by a sand-bank, which is covered only at the time of flood. *Colonsa* lies two leagues north from *Ila*; it is four miles long and one mile broad, not so fruitful as *Oronsa*; it has one church and two ruinous chapels; and some fresh-water lakes defended by forts and full of trouts. *Oronsa* is four miles in circumference, and is fruitful in corn and grass; chiefly inhabited by the Macduffs, and has a church and chapel upon it. Both these islands consist of rocky ridges intermixed with verdant valleys and ravines affording pasturage, and the hills have some spots of excellent herbage. Above two hundred head of cattle are annually exported. Kelp to the quantity of forty or fifty tons is yearly made on the shores.

22. *Ila* or *Islay*.—This island is situated about six leagues from the north coast of Ireland, and four from the coast of Argyle county. The form is irregular, perhaps not very unlike a horse-shoe with the toe part pointed, being hollowed towards the south by a large bay called *Loch Indaal*. The circumference about fifty miles. It is separated from *Jura* by a narrow strait, to which it gives the name of Sound. The face of the country is hilly, particularly on the north-east; on the other side the land is in many parts excellent, but still remains almost in a state of nature. It produces corn of different kinds, except wheat, and much flax. The people miserably poor, inhabiting wretched huts composed of loose stones, and growing scarcely sufficient corn for their own consumption. It contains some mines of lead mixed with copper: strata of iron called *bog ore*, with veins of emery. In some places small veins of quicksilver have been found. Great numbers of cattle are bred, and many annually exported. In the centre of it lies *Loch Finlagan*, three miles in circumference, full of fine salmon, trouts, and eels; and in it is an island on which are still to be seen the ruins of the royal palace of Macdonald, king of the Isles, who resided here, and made it the seat of his government. *Ila* has several fresh-water lakes with forts upon them, and a medicinal spring which the natives make use of for all diseases; but the greatest curiosity are the subterraneous caves, one of which is capable of holding two hundred men. There are four churches and a chapel upon *Ila*, the chief of which is dedicated to St. Columbus. There are several very small isles near *Ila*, but they are of too little importance to be described.

23. *Gigha* is six miles long and one broad. It is low, and its soil a mixture of rich pasture and arable land, producing
barley,

barley, bear, oats, flax, and potatoes. The natives, who in summer engage in the herring fishery, are poor, and many have emigrated to America. It contains no wood except a few juniper bushes. It has, however, a medicinal well, said to be good against all diseases; and the soil, or rather the stones, of this island produce corker, which dyes a crimson colour, and crostil, which dyes a phylamote.

24. *Cary*.—Close along the south side of this island lies the Isle of Cary, about a mile in compass, on which are good pasturage and a vast quantity of rabbits.

25. *Sanda*.—The small island of Sanda is situated adjacent to the Mull of Kintyre, or southern part of that peninsula. It is above a mile and a half in length and half a mile in breadth; famed as the place of rendezvous for the Danish fleet in their excursions to these coasts. Hence it went under the name of *Avona Porticosa*, and is still sometimes called Avon. Sanda, however, is the more ancient as well as the common name. In this island are the remains of an old popish chapel. There are also two other small islands at the east side of Sanda, well calculated for keeping sheep. In the Sound of Sanda, which is a league distant from the continent, there is plenty of cod.

BUTE-SHIRE.

THE remainder of the Hebrides or Western Isles are comprehended under the shire of Bute. This small shire or county sends a member to parliament alternately with Caithness. It consists of the islands of Bute and Arran, together with the small isles called greater and lesser Cumbray, and Inchmarnoch.

Bute.—The island of Bute is situated in the Frith of Clyde; and vessels from the Atlantic, entering that river, pass along the eastern side of the island. Bute is separated from the district of Cowal in Argyleshire by a long and narrow channel of half a mile in breadth. The longitudinal extent of Bute from north to south is about eighteen miles; its greatest breadth from east to west about five miles; but some large bays entering deep into its area, render its line of circumference irregular. Bute contains a royal borough, Rothsay. The town is excellently situated for trade, having a fine harbour at the bottom of an extensive bay on the north-west side of the island, in which there is safe anchorage. In the southern part of the island many rocks form basaltic pillars. Abundance of slate is found in the island, and great quantities are exported.

Inchmarnoch.

Inchmarnoch.—On the western side of Bute is Inchmarnoch, so called from St. Marnoch. The ruins of a chapel are to be seen on it, where (according to Fordun) had been a cell of monks. The extent of this little isle is about a mile; it has 120 acres of arable land, 40 of brushwood, near 300 of moor, and has a vast stratum of coral and shells on the west side. The surface of the island is beautifully diversified with hill and dale.

Arran.—The island of Arran lies to the south-west of Bute, in the mouth of the Frith of Clyde, directly opposite to Loch Fyne, at the distance of five miles south from the district of Cowal in Argyleshire, nearly ten miles south-west from Bute; from Lochryan in Galloway about fifteen leagues north-west. In length this island may be from twenty-four to thirty miles, extending between north and south. Its greatest breadth from east to west exceeds fourteen miles. Its surface is almost every where rugged and mountainous. The lakes are Loch Yirsa, where salmon come to spawn; Loch Tana; Loch-na-h-jura, on the top of a high hill; Loch Mhaclirai; and Loch Knock, or Charbeil, full of large eels. The chief rivers are, Abhan-Mhor, Moina-Mhor, Slaodira-Machrai, and Torfa. The last two remarkable for the abundance of salmon. The climate is very severe: for, besides the violence of winds, the cold is very rigorous, and the snow lies here in the vallies sometimes for thirteen weeks of the winter.

Cumbray-more.—The greater Cumbray is distant about two miles from Ayrshire and three miles from Bute. It is separated from the little Cumbray upon the south by a channel of three quarters of a mile broad. The length of the island from north-east to south-west is two miles and a half; the breadth from east to west about one mile and a half. The surface contains about 2,300 acres, one third of which is, or might be, cultivated. Here is a commodious dry harbour, where in spring-tides there is water to the height of eleven feet. There is also a safe anchorage sheltered by a rocky islet. There is plenty of limestone, and an inexhaustible fund of excellent freestone. There are two rocks on the east side of the island which have joints and seams like the basaltic rocks of Staffa, but are not so regularly columnar.

Little Cumbray is about a mile in length and half a mile in breadth. The strata of rocks are horizontal; and as they recede from the shore, they rise above each other like stairs. There are several caves in the island, and an old fortress. Upon the highest part of the island a light-house was erected in the year 1750; but, as from its elevated situation the light was liable to be obscured in fogs, another, with a reflector, was lately

lately erected upon a lower station. The whole island belongs to the Earl of Eglintoun.

The population of the shire of Bute is 11,791 persons; they have 1,928 houses.

THE ORKNEYS.

THE Orkney and Shetland Isles form together one county, which sends a representative to the British parliament. We shall consider first the Orkneys, and afterwards the more northern group called the Shetland Isles. The islands styled by the moderns the Orkneys, are situated in the Northern Ocean, between the coast of Caithness and Shetland; from the former of which they are distant only about four, and from the latter nearly twenty leagues.

These islands became distinctly known to the learned world during the first century. They were at least discovered, if they were not subdued, by the Roman fleet which circumnavigated the British island in Agricola's memorable campaign, A. D. 84: and even Thulé was, in that voyage, descried, which had hitherto been hid amidst eternal snows. The name of Orcades formed a classic term during classical times. The islands and their appellation became familiar to the Romans from their communications with the Celtic inhabitants of Britain, before the Scandinavian rovers appeared in the British seas. There is reason to believe that the Orkney Isles were planted during early ages by the posterity of the same people who settled western Europe. The stone monuments which still remain plainly establish that obscure truth; yet, owing probably to some physical cause, the original people seem to have disappeared in some period of a prior date to our common era.

During the efflux of two centuries, those desert isles became the harbours of the ferocious seamen of northern Europe. In 366, the great Theodosius pursued the Saxon fleet into the usual haunts of those enterprising pirates; and he is said, in the language of panegyric, to have stained the Orkneys with the bloody streams of Saxons slain. The Orkneys were settled by the Scandinavians before the age of Columba, who found one of their chiefs at the residence of Bridei the Pictish king; and who sent his missionaries to illuminate the darkness of those benighted islands. Christianity was at this period introduced among them by Saint Columba.

Soon after the year 875, Harold Harfagre having united the

several provinces of Norway by a naval victory, pursued the fugitives into Shetland and Orkney, subdued the islanders, and there established the authority of his vigorous government. His whole power the conqueror delegated to Sigurd, the son of Eystain and brother of Rognwald, who is praised by Wormius as a poet: him, Harold created the first earl of the Orcadian dynasty, and after him a long succession of earls ensued, who, amid their dissensions and piracies, probably yielded but slight subjection to the Norwegian kings. It was an age of barbarism, when protection could only be gained by slavery, and wealth could most easily be obtained by plunder. Torf-Eyner, who ruled the Orkneys about the year 930, first taught them the use of turf for fuel during the scarcity of wood. In 980, the Orkney men were converted to the Christian faith, which had been early intimated to them by the zealous Columban, and at length perfected by Saint Magnus. Shetland and Orkney continued in subjection to Norway till the year 1468, when James III. gained, by the gentle mode of marriage, what he could not have acquired by the rough means of war: a prudent union which this prince effected with the Princess of Denmark gave him possession of these isles, and they were annexed to the crown by act of parliament.

The Orkney Islands are sixty-seven in number, twenty-eight of which are inhabited; the remaining thirty-nine, known under the name of *holms*, are dedicated to the pasturing of a few cattle, sheep, or rabbits, and are in general too small and too much exposed to the violence of the weather to be fit for human habitation.

It would be useless to give a minute account of each of these isles. Some of the principal alone will be noticed.

Mainland, or Pomona.—This island is in the centre of the group; and the remaining islands receive the appellation of north or south isles from their position with regard to it. The Mainland, from south-east to north-west, extends not less than thirty English miles, and displays considerable variety of appearance. A ridge of hills, of no great height, rises on its eastern extremity, and stretches westward, with some interruptions, to a considerable distance; after which it turns northward, nearly at right angles, so as to run parallel to the western boundary of the island, from which it is distant about six miles. Along the western boundary run the hills of Stromness and Sandwick. Through this extensive tract the hills are generally green on the sides, many parts of which are productive when cultivated. The tops are covered with a mixture of heath and various

various sorts of grafs, and afford a fecure haunt for multitudes of moor-fowl, as well as pasture for ſheep, black cattle, and horſes. The breadth of the Mainland is by no means conſiderable; for though it reaches nearly ſixteen miles on the weſt ſide, the eaſt does not extend above five or ſix; and near the middle it is ſo narrow as to form a neck of land which comprehends little more than a mile in length, dividing the iſland into two peninſulas. The ſpacious and beautiful bay of Scalpa bounds the one ſide of this iſthmus, and the bay of Kirkwall the other; and the ground that lies between them is at once ſo flat, ſo damp, and in other reſpects of ſuch a nature as to render it probable that the ſea, ſome time or other, has occupied the whole ſpace between them. To the eaſtward of the bay of Kirkwall is the bay of Inganeſs. Advancing from the north, it is ſo well ſheltered from the weſt winds as to render it an extremely commodious retreat for ſhipping. Another bay to the eaſtward advances inland and forms a large territory, or pariſh of Deerneſs, into a peninſula. This bay is alſo well calculated to afford a retreat for ſhipping. In this eaſtern part of the iſland the ſoil is in general thin, and the cultivated land lies in a declivity to the ſouth. The houſes of the peaſantry, however, are neatly built, and their ſmall gardens are uſually in good order. In the weſtern part of the Mainland is the great loch of Stennis, riſing at the head of the bay of Kerſton, which proceeds from the ſouth. The tide in ſome meaſure alternately fills and almoſt empties it. Its direction is toward the north-weſt to the extent of five miles. Trout, flounders, and other kinds of fiſh are found in it. The village of Stromneſs is on the ſouth-weſt quarter of the Mainland. It would appear that deer have once inhabited this iſland, as their horns have ſometimes been dug up; and, both from tradition and from the roots of trees and hazle nuts which are frequently dug up, there ſeems reaſon to believe that at ſome diſtant period it was not deſtitute of woods.

Kirkwall, the only royal borough in theſe iſlands, and the chief town of the county or ſtewartry of Orkney, is ſituated on the Mainland or Pomona. It is built on a neck of land waſhed on one ſide by the road and bay of Kirkwall, and on the other by a pleaſant inlet of the ſea which flows by the back of the gardens at high water. It is nearly a mile long, but is of inconfiderable breadth, having only one ſtreet running the whole length, very inconvenient from its narrowneſs and the badneſs of the pavement; and toward the ſtreet the ends or gables of the houſes are placed, which gives it an awkward appearance. Several of the gentlemen of property reſide here, and a conſiderable number of ſhopkeepers; but the body of

the people is composed of tradesmen, boatmen, servants, and day labourers. The government is in the hands of a provost, four magistrates, a dean of guild, treasurer, and fifteen other members, who together compose a council that meets at Michaelmas every year for the purpose of alternately electing and being elected; and at other times to collect and dispense the public funds, and transact the other branches of the business of the community. Kirkwall and the four northern boroughs, Wick, Dornoch, Tain, and Dingwall, jointly choose a burghers to represent them in the British parliament. In this town the sheriff, the admiral, the commissary, and justice of peace courts, are occasionally convened for the administration of justice; and for the cognizance and regulation of ecclesiastical matters, the three presbyteries of which the provincial synod is composed, and also the synod itself, meet at least once a year, or oftener according to circumstances. Here is also a custom-house and post-office, and a store-house, into which are collected the rents, that are mostly paid in kind of both the bishopric and earldom, which are generally let on lease to merchants, who sometimes dispose of them here, sometimes send them out of the country. The town-house is supported on pillars forming a piazza in front, and in every respect a neat and commodious building; the first story of which is divided into apartments for a common prison, the second for an assembly-hall, with a large adjoining room for the courts of justice, and the highest is set apart as a lodge for the accommodation of the ancient fraternity of free-masons. To the west of this, and at no great distance, are the school-houses, in which are taught the several branches of English education, Latin, Greek, and mathematics. For nothing, however, is the town more celebrated than for its excellent harbour, broad, safe, and capacious, with a bottom of clay so firm, and a depth of water so convenient, as to afford anchorage for ships of a large size and in great numbers.

As reliques of antiquity, the ruins known by the names of the King's Castle, the Bishop's Palace, and the Cathedral of St. Magnus, are entitled to notice.

Græmsay.—Græmsay is one of the southern islands about a mile and a half south-east from Stromness. It extends from east to west about a mile and a half, and about a mile in breadth. The whole is level and the soil good; being either used for corn or suffered to remain in old grass. In the interior parts a bed of slate supports the thin surface.

Hoy.—Another inhabited island is Hoy, separated from Græmsay by a strait of a mile in breadth. It consists of the highest land in Orkney. Almost the whole of it is occupied by

by three large hills in the form of a triangle, of which that to the north-east is the largest. Except along the north shores, which are bordered with a loamy soil and a rich verdure, the island has a soil composed of peat and clay, of which the former commonly predominates, black, wet, and spongy. This seems to arise from a greater quantity of rain falling here than in many other parts of the country. The island is chiefly appropriated to the pasture of sheep. On the hills are many alpine plants; and among them some delightful vallies, intersected with rivulets, whose banks are decked with flowers and sheltered with shrubs, such as the birch, the hazel, and the currant, which are sometimes honoured with the name of trees, because in this particular situation they have risen ten or twelve feet above the ground that supports them. The Wart or Ward hill of Hoy rises to about a mile in height above the level of the sea. Westward from this hill is a stupendous rock called the *Old Man of Hoy*. It rises about 1,500 feet above the sea, and resembles, at a distance, a monstrous ruin, from the fantastic manner in which its sides and summit have been worn by the dashing of the waves of a tempestuous ocean, or by the action of the winds in this northern climate. Hoy, in former times, produced large birch trees and white hares.

Waas.—The island of Waas is remarkable on account of its excellent harbours, called Orchope, Kirkhope, and Longhope. It is adjacent to the Pentland Frith. It is in truth a district of Hoy, or peninsula connected with it by a narrow neck of land, and forms the southern part of that island.

Ruffay, Farrray, Cavay, Flotay.—Ruffay, Farrray, and Cavay are small islands on the eastern side of Hoy, and support a few persons. Flotay is on the same side of Hoy, and is three miles long and little more than one in breadth. It has a bay called Panhope, well known to mariners. Its western side is covered with long heath, and abounds with moor-fowl; the remainder is covered with grass or cultivated for corn.

Ronaldsay.—South Ronaldsay is the most populous of the southern division of the islands. It consists of about eighteen square miles; and the arable and grass lands form a larger proportion than elsewhere to the rude ordinary pastures. Much kelp is produced on its shores.

Swinna.—To the south-west of the former is Swanay, or Swinna, a small island about a mile long and a mile and a half broad, lying nearly in the middle of the Pentland Frith. It is very barren, but is inhabited by a few families who gain a livelihood by the wages which the men receive for acting as pilots to the vessels passing that dangerous strait. At each side of it are the whirlpools called the *Wells of Swinna*, which are

chiefly dangerous in a calm. It is said that, to avoid them, when a vessel is found within the vortex, it is found necessary to throw out a barrel, or some bulky substance, at the stern of the vessel, whereby to enable her to turn her side to the current, and thereby to stand out of it. In a quick breeze of wind the pools may be passed with little danger. Indeed, these currents seem, like Scylla and Charybdis, to have been chiefly rendered formidable by ignorance. A post-office boat, four times in the week, crosses the Pentland Frith from Caithness, and in fifty years no accident has occurred. The case seems to have been very different formerly, as it is said that a Scottish fisherman was imprisoned in Kirkwall, in the beginning of May, for publishing an account of the Revolution by which the Prince and Princess of Orange were raised to the throne of the British islands in the preceding month of November; and he would have suffered punishment had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a vessel. The truth of the story, however, has of late been doubted.

Pentland Skerry.—Pentland Skerry is one of two small islands in the Pentland Frith, inhabited by a man and his family who take care of the light-house; the importance of which establishment must be obvious, when it is considered that 3,300 ships have passed this frith annually.

Burray.—Burray is separated from South Ronaldsay by a ferry of a mile broad. It is nearly four miles in length and one in breadth. Potatoes, carrots, peas, onions, cabbage, and turnip, are raised here in greater perfection than in the other islands; and white and red clover abound in the natural pastures.

Lamon.—Lamon is a small island between Burray and the Mainland. It contains only one family.

Copinsay.—Copinsay, to the eastward of the Mainland, forms an excellent land-mark for ships. It presents a bold perpendicular front to the German Ocean on the east. It is about a mile in length and half a mile in breadth, and contains two or three families, who rear some corn.

Shapinsay.—Shapinsay is adjacent to the Mainland. On its northern side its surface amounts to about nine square miles. It formerly belonged to the bishops of Orkney. Around the whole island the shores are low, and to a considerable distance inland pretty level, and covered with grass and corn fields. Towards the middle, the land is considerably higher, and exhibits the appearance of a barren waste, fit only for sheep pasture. A small bay is called Grucula, in consequence, according to tradition, of one of Agricola's ships having been stranded here. In fact, some Roman coins have been lately found

found near the place. Its only harbour is that of Elwick. About 120 tons of kelp are annually burned on its shores.

Stronsay.—Stronsay is a pretty large island, rather flat, situated to the east of the former, from which it is divided by a rapid frith of the same name, six miles wide. On that quarter it bounds the group of the Orkney islands. From an inspection of the map, it appears not only to be curiously indented, but almost cut into three distinct islands, which were formerly so many separate parishes; and this intersection has probably given rise to the name conferred on it by the ancients of the *Isle of Strand*, or *Stronsay*. Its dimensions are seven miles long and four broad; through the whole it discovers much variety in point of soil and elevation; and while it equals several of the rest in the production of the fruits of the earth, it enjoys one advantage over them in its very convenient situation for an extensive and lucrative fishery. This advantage, however much despised at present, seems to have attracted attention in former times, when the island was considered as of more consequence, on account of its extensive intercourse with the east in the flourishing state of the herring fishery, a pretty extensive one being then carried on in that island. The exact share which the inhabitants had in that business cannot be now ascertained, but it was probably not very great, as most of the operations were performed by people from the county of Fife, who being called home in the commotions that then shook the kingdom, all fell in the battle of Kilsyth; and this circumstance unfortunately put an end to that promising species of industry. The island has two harbours, or rather places of retreat, for ships; Linga Sound on the west, and Papay Sound on the north-east.

Papay.—Papay Stronsay is a pleasant little level island, of about three miles in circuit, on the north-east of the former.

Eday.—Eday is nearly in the centre of the north isles. It is about five miles and a half long, and nearly one and a half broad. It consists chiefly of hills of a moderate height, affording excellent pasture. It possesses two good harbours or roadsteads, each sheltered by a small islet, where vessels of any burden may ride in safety. The one is called Calf Sound, and the other Fierfness.

Farey.—Farey is a small island, about two miles in length and one in breadth, rather flat, and covered with verdure. Besides a very advantageous situation for fishing, it has a soil and surface more than sufficient to raise both corn and cattle, in ordinary years, to answer every demand of the inhabitants.

Sanday.—Sanday, so called from the nature of its soil, is in extent of about twelve miles in length, varying in breadth from one mile or less in some places, to two or three in others. Its form is very irregular, having many extended points, with bays running a considerable way inland. It lies to the north-east of the isles of Eday and Stronsay, from which it is separated by a channel from two to three miles broad. The surface is low and flat, particularly on the east coast, which not only renders the coast dangerous to mariners, but subjects the island to inundation from a spring-tide with a gale of easterly wind. The soil is every where mixed with sand, and when well manured with sea-ware produces as good crops as any island in the Orkneys. The making of kelp is the chief employment of the people during the summer; and no island of the Orkneys, of the same extent of sea-coast, produces an equal quantity with this island. It generally produces 500 or 600 tons; and 620 tons have been made in a season. The two principal harbours are Kettletofet on the south, and Otterswick on the north side of the island, both pretty safe and commodious.

North Ronaldsay is situated to the north of Sanday, at the distance of two miles, and divided from it by a very rapid and dangerous frith. It contains about four square miles. It is little raised above the level of the sea; and at least 100 tons of kelp are annually manufactured on the shore.

Westray.—Westray is of more importance. It lies on the north-west quarter of the whole islands. In form it resembles a cross, the body of which is eight, and its arms about five miles in length. Through this whole extent, which stretches from south-east to north-west, it forms a ridge, low on the shores and gently elevated towards the middle; and from south to north, on the west side, a range of pretty high hills forms its boundary in that direction. The cultivated lands and the principal grass pastures are on the east end, and on the north and south shores; a large portion of them is on the south-west, where both of them are uncommonly fine; and as the waste land lies in the middle of these tracts, what is on the west and on the north-west is inferior neither in quantity nor quality. The island contains abundance of peat for fuel. Much corn is raised, but of an indifferent quality; but the grass is good; and in the boisterous seas around it, abundance of fish are found. On the east and south are two bays, to which ships retire in summer; but the only safe harbour is called Pier-o-wall, on the north-west; and this is fit for small vessels only. Formerly it afforded accommodation for ships of much greater burden, and it is sheltered in all directions; but
from

from the blowing of the sand, which of late has been very great, the water has become so shallow, that ships which have occasion to put in here are compelled to anchor in a more open road farther out in the harbour. The blowing of the sand has also spread desolation over some of the most beautiful and best land not only in this island but also in Sanday.

Papay Westray. — Papay Westray is a beautiful little island to the north of the former. It is four miles long and about one mile broad. It is pleasant and fertile, and abounds with fine natural clover. A lake of fresh water adorns its south-east corner.

Eaglesbay. — Eaglesbay is about six miles south of Westray, and divided from it by a tempestuous frith. It is about two miles long and one broad; and in this part of the world is accounted so beautiful, as to have been chosen as a place of residence by some of the ancient counts and bishops of Orkney.

Ronsay. — Ronsay lies to the north-west of the Mainland, and is about nine miles long and four broad. The greatest part of it is hill-ground, but it has some stripes of arable land on the coast. It has several small lakes, which give rise to a number of rivulets. It has several safe harbours, and is accounted one of the most agreeable of the Orkney Isles.

Weir. — Weir is divided from Ronsay by Weir Sound, which is one of the best retreats for shipping in the district. The island is two miles long and one broad, and lies comparatively low. It has abundance of turf for fuel, but its soil is poor.

En-hallow. — En-hallow is only about a mile in circumference. It is separated from Ronsay by a reef of rocks, which is covered at high water, and therefore dangerous. It contains two families, who say that neither rats, mice, nor cats will live in it.

Gairsay. — Gairsay is a mile from the Mainland, and two miles south from Weir. It is two miles long and one broad; consisting chiefly of a hill that is steep on the west side, but gradually declines, forming a tolerably fertile district on the east. It has a harbour, called Milbourn, on this last side.

Darnsay. — Darnsay is about three miles from Kirkwall. It is scarcely a mile in circuit, and is covered with a thick sward of fine grass, which is used for the pasturage of sheep.

Property in land is held in the Orkneys in a variety of forms, which may be reduced to three: 1. *King's lands*, which had formerly belonged to the earls of Orkney, but which had been, in process of time, feued out or granted in perpetuity to

to vassals, who became bound to pay for ever the old rents, which were usually taken in kind, on account of the scarcity of money. 2. *Kirk lands*, or those which anciently belonged to the bishops and clergy of Orkney, and which are now held by private persons, to whose ancestors they had been granted in feu or perpetuity, for payment in kind of the old rents. And, lastly, there are *udal lands*, or lands held without any written charters. This tenure occurs no where else in the Scottish territory, excepting in Orkney and Shetland, and in the four towns of Lochmaben. It would appear that the feudal system had never fully penetrated to these northern islands. At the same time, the Udallers are few in number; some of them pay a small rent to the crown or church, and some pay to neither.

The weighing instruments of this territory are reckoned among its grievances. They were brought from Norway at a very early period. The smallest of these weights, or the one of the lowest denomination, is the mark; twenty-four marks make a setteen, or lispund, or pund bysmer, or span; all of which are equivalent and convertible terms; and though the three latter are now obsolete, they were commonly used in the last age. Six setteens or lispunds make a meil, and twenty-four meils a last. The weighing instruments, which are of the same extraction, are the bysmer and pundler; on the former of which are reckoned marks and setteens or lispunds, and on the latter setteens or meils. The original standards of these have been long lost or destroyed; and hence they are fluctuating, and in some measure arbitrary. But what is more extraordinary, a setteen or lispund, on the bysmer, is different from a setteen on the pundler; and all the marks on the former, and the setteen on the latter, are intirely different from one another. This occasions some particular weights on each of these instruments to be most advantageous to the seller, as others are to the buyer; and this being known only to those who are much in the practice of weighing, not only strangers, but also the bulk of the people, are unable to guard themselves against imposition.

The produce of these islands in grain is inconsiderable. The gardens afford esculent vegetables, and some of the minor fruits as currants, but the larger and more highly flavoured, as apples, pears, and plums do not attain perfection. The coasts and fresh waters abound with fish, and when industry shall be stimulated by capital, it is probable that the produce of the ocean may be rendered extremely beneficial. The common frog and the toad are the only reptiles found in these islands.

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The domestic birds are dunghill fowl, turkeys, and sometimes peacocks; which last are at times reared about gentlemen's houses. Ducks and geese are every where reared in vast numbers. The wild birds, both migratory and indigenous, are very numerous. Falcons and eagles are the most destructive; partridges have been introduced, but perished; the magpye is never seen there; and if the rook appear, it is supposed to portend a famine. The natives are very dexterous in catching the various sorts of aquatic fowl.

The quadrupeds are, the shrew-mouse, the mouse, the short tailed field-mouse or vole-mouse, the field-mouse, the brown or Norwegian rat, the common black rat, the rabbit, the seal or felchy, the otter, the cat, the dog, the hog, the sheep, the ox, and the horse. The brown or Norwegian rat has been introduced by the shipping that frequent the islands. It has nearly banished the common black rat. The brown rat infests houses, barns, hen roosts, rabbit warrens, and in some instances, even church-yards. Its strength is great. From the tip of the nose to the point of the tail is eighteen inches. Its legs are firm, and its claws and fore-teeth sharp. It swims and dives readily. Even when attacked by man it discovers no great alarm. Rabbits so much abound here that their skins form a considerable commerce. Their colour is brown; an entirely white one is rare. They feed on corn and grass, and sometimes on sea-weeds and the roots of vegetables. Hawks, eagles, dogs, cats, and otters, prey upon them; yet they multiply prodigiously. No hares, however, exist in these islands, because from want of woods, and their incapacity of retreating into the earth like rabbits, they find no refuge from their numerous enemies. The seal is very common in the small islands or holms. Some of them measure eight or nine feet from the point of the nose to the claws of the hind legs; and at the shoulders they are nearly as much in circumference. For their skins and oil they are shot, caught in nets, or knocked down with clubs. Hams made of young seals are thought tolerable by the natives. Dogs are here of considerable importance. To a little farmer a dog is more valuable than a horse or a cow, because he has no other mode of protecting his corn. The species of hog reared here is small, the colour variable, black, brown, dirty white, and tawny; the back highly arched, and covered with a great quantity of long stiff bristles; the ears erect and sharp pointed; the nose amazingly strong. Its awkward shape and ugly appearance show it to be different from what are met with in almost every part of the kingdom. They are in general as lean as they are ugly, having only a very poor pasture; but when put up to be fed,
and

and furnished with suitable provender, they in a short time, and at little expence, acquire flesh which for delicacy and flavour, is much esteemed. Even the hair of these animals is an article of considerable value, in as far as it serves as a substitute for hemp in making ropes to anchor fishing-boats; for confining in the fields horses and cattle; and for binding about the middle, men, in order to let them down in safety to rob the nests, and catch the young, of such birds as build in the shelves of the rock.

The manufactures of these island are not great. Woollen cloth, blankets, and stockings are made in small portions and of a coarse texture; linen is produced in greater quantity, and of better quality; but the principal manufacture of the Orkneys, and which greatly exceeds all others in point of importance, is that of kelp, which is a thriving and profitable undertaking.

There are in these islands 24,445 people, inhabiting 4,550 houses.

THE SHETLAND ISLANDS.

The Shetland Islands consist of about seventeen which are inhabited, and a number of lesser ones called, as in Orkney, *Holms*, dedicated to the feeding of cattle, sheep, &c.

The political history and present situation of both these clusters of islands, with regard to the tenures by which landed property is held, is the same. The Shetland have in all ages followed the destiny of the Orkney Isles.

Mainland. — The principal island is here, as in Orkney, called the Mainland, and bears a larger proportion to the whole territory than in Orkney. The Mainland is no less than 60 miles in length from north to south, and in some places it is upwards of twelve miles in breadth. It projects into the sea with a vast multitude of irregular promontories; and is on all sides so deeply indented with numerous bays and harbours that no part of it lies above three miles from the sea. Thus the territory may be considered as wholly maritime. The next island in point of magnitude is the island of Yell, which lies to the northward of the Mainland. It is twenty miles long and nearly twelve broad. The coast is bold and rocky, intersected by several bays, or as they are here called, *Voers*, which form safe harbours. The chief of these are called *Hauma Voe*, *Burra Voe*, and *Mid Yell Voe*. The surface is pretty level, with several small lakes, which are the sources of a few rivulets.

Lerwick,

Lerwick, situated on the Mainland, is the capital of the Isles, and the seat of the courts held by the sheriff-depute or steward-depute. The town stands on the spacious harbour called *Lerwick*, or *Bressay* sound, and derives its only consequence from the courts of law, and the resort of the vessels employed in the whale fishery, which make this bay the place of their rendezvous. Near the north end of the town is a small fortification, called *Fort Charlotte*, which commands the north entry to *Bressay* sound, and is garrisoned by a small detachment of invalids. The town is about half a mile in length, and irregularly built, but contains some good houses, with a small, polite and hospitable society. In *Bressay* sound, or *Lerwick* harbour, vessels well found may ride at all seasons in perfect safety; and what renders this harbour particularly commodious, is its having two entries, one from the south and another from the north. On the outside of the north entry lies a funk rock, called the *Unicorn*. When the Earl of *Bothwell* fled to *Shetland*, the *Unicorn* man of war was dispatched in pursuit of him. On the appearance of the *Unicorn*, his ship, then lying in the *Bressay* sound, was got immediately under weigh, and sailed out of the north entry, followed hard by the other; and having a pilot on board, got to sea, by which means he made his escape, and landed at *Norway*; while the chasing ship was wrecked on that rock, which has ever since been called the *Unicorn*. *Scallaway*, which stands also upon the Mainland, is more ancient than *Lerwick*, but it is an extremely trifling village.

Unst. — *Unst* is the most northern of the *Shetland* Isles, and the most northern territory belonging to the British empire; and for that reason may be accounted deserving of special notice. Its form is of an irregular oblong figure. In comparison with the other *Shetland* Isles, *Unst* is reckoned level, yet its surface is diversified by several extensive and moderately high hills. *Vallafield*, rising within a mile and a half of its southern extremity, runs in a direction parallel to the western coast, and under different names, to the very northern point. *Saxaforth*, a hill of considerable height, and the highest in the island, lies toward its northern end. *Crossfield* stands nearly in the middle, and at right angles to *Vallafield*. *Vordhill* stretches out parallel to the east coast. Tracts of level ground are interspersed among these hills. The highest of the hills are still covered with moss or black peat earth to the depth of some feet. On such as are lower (and there are several besides these which have been enumerated) the mosses have been exhausted, and the bare rocks appear here and there through a thin layer of mould covered with a green dry sward, which

which yields excellent pasture. The hill of Saxaforth is not less than 700 feet high, and may be seen fourteen leagues off the coast. Valiafield rises to the height of 600 feet. The island is intersected by no rivers, but contains (in proportion to its extent at least) many fresh-water lakes. Loch Cliff is two miles long, and nearly half a mile broad. The scenery is pleasant along its banks. A chain of smaller lochs runs from Cliff to the southern end of the island. The sea-coast of Unst being broken and indented by so many bays and creeks, its extent cannot be easily ascertained; nor has any accurate measurement of it been yet attempted. Several islets are scattered here and there around it. All the shores exposed to the main ocean, but especially the headlands, rise to the height of 60 or 70 fathoms. The shores of the bays and harbours again are low, shelving, and sandy. The longest day in the island of Unst is nineteen hours fifteen minutes, and of consequence the shortest day is four hours and forty-five minutes.

Foula.—Foula is supposed to be the *Ultima Thule* of the ancients, not only from the mere analogy of the name, but also from more undoubted testimony; for Tacitus, speaking of the Roman general Agricola, regarding his victories and the distance to which he penetrated northward, thus expresses himself: “*Invenit domuitque insulas quas vocant Orcades despectaque Thule.*” Now, Foula, which is high ground, is easily seen in a clear day from the northern part of the Orkneys. It is about three miles in length, and one and a half in breadth. It is situated nearly twenty miles distant from any land to the westward of the clusters of Orkney and of Shetland; to which last it is politically annexed. It is very bold and steep towards the west; and the only landing-place which is called Ham, lies on the east side, and is much resorted to as a fishing station.

These islands, though much neglected on account of their remote situation and other disadvantages, contain nearly as much land as the Orkneys, and are computed to be nearly equal in extent to the Dutch provinces. They are not upon the whole mountainous; though at the same time, their surface is high, irregular, hilly, and covered to a great extent with moors and mosses; and their coast is bold. In general, the mountains are less in the islands towards the north. In the parish of North Mevan, which is a peninsula belonging to the Mainland, is the highest hill in the islands. It is called Rona's Hill. It is eight miles in length and four in breadth. It was found by geometrical mensuration to be 3,944 feet above the level of the sea.

There

There is a great diversity of soil in the Shetland Islands; often deep moss with a sandy bottom; sometimes the moss or peat is only about a foot deep over a stratum of clay. That part of the land which has been longest under cultivation consists, in general, of a mixture of clay and small stones. When the substratum is limestone, the grounds are much more fertile, and the crops are earlier. It is computed that there are 25,000 acres of arable land, and about 23,000 of meadow and good pasture, in Shetland; but as these islands are only cultivated along the sea-coast, the ground employed in husbandry bears no proportion to the waste and uncultivated parts. The only grains cultivated are that sort of barley known under the name of bear or big, and a small kind of black or grey oat.

It is well known that the domestic animals of this country are the smallest of any in the dominions belonging to the British crown. This is evidently owing to the scantiness of their food. Neither artificial grasses nor green crops are cultivated, nor are there any inclosures capable of protecting such crops from the multitude of sheep, cattle and horses, which pasture on the commons in winter unattended by any herdsman. The horses are of a very small size, the least from nine to ten hands high, the larger eleven hands. They are full of spirit, and can bear fatigue much better in proportion than larger horses. They are evidently the Norway horse, reduced in size by scanty fare. They are never put into a house, nor receive any food except what they gather from the ground. The cows are also small. When fat, some of the cows will weigh from two to three hundred weight; but the common run is much smaller. The quantity of milk which these cows yield is not very considerable. The people make little cheese, but a great deal of butter. Great numbers of hogs are bred in Shetland. They are of a smaller size than those in Scotland, and are particularly distinguished for the shortness of their back. They are easily fed, and might be made of much greater use to the inhabitants than they are at present. The most important part of the live stock of these islands is their sheep. It is now pretty clearly ascertained, that the celebrated breed of Shetland sheep came originally from Denmark and Norway along with the first adventurers, who settled in those islands many centuries ago. It is calculated that there are from 110,000 to 120,000 sheep in the Shetland Islands. These valuable animals produce more profit with less trouble than any other article. Were they properly attended to, both the quantity and the value of their wool might be greatly augmented. In the report of the committee of the
Highland

Highland Society of Scotland upon the subject of Shetland wool, the following remarks are made: "It would appear that the permanent fineness of the wool depends entirely upon the breed of sheep; for on the same pasture, and in the very same climate, sheep with the *finest* and with the *coarsest* wool are maintained; insomuch that from the wool of the same flock, some stockings worth *two guineas per pair*, and others worth less than *four-pence*, are produced."

Many domestic and many wild fowls are found in these islands. The most numerous of the migratory are the kittiwakes, the young of which are esteemed very delicate food. Their nests are placed usually upon the heights of rocks, and on the brink of precipices sixty or a hundred fathoms high, and in many places projecting awfully over the depth below. Although in situations seemingly so inaccessible, yet these nests are plundered by the inhabitants in spring of many of the eggs, and in August of the young fowls. The danger attending this robbery of the nest does not deter the plunderers. They sometimes sail in boats to the bottom of the precipices, and climb upwards; sometimes they approach the brink above, and let each other down by ropes. Even at night, so fearless are these islanders, they will wander among the rocks to surprize the old fowls upon the nests. The female parent often exhibits, upon such occasions, remarkable proofs of natural affection, beating the invader with her wings, pecking him with her bill, and even suffering herself to be taken upon the nest, rather than desert the protection of her young. The eggs and carcases of these fowls form a considerable part of the food of the inhabitants upon these coasts in the season when they are to be obtained. The feathers are also an article of considerable value. By the police of the country, a reward of 3s. 4d. may be claimed by every person who kills an eagle or erne, 3d. for a corbie or raven, and 2d. for a crow. These rewards are paid by the commissioners of the land-tax, at sight of the heads of the fowls that have been killed.

The fishery is carried on with considerable vigour and success. In former times, before the proprietors engaged in the fisheries, a superabundance of population was here considered as ruinous and burdensome to the community; and a prohibition existed in the old regulations, called *Country Acts*, against marriage, unless where the young couple could shew they possessed 40l. Scots of free gear. This law is not only now neglected, but a contrary principle so anxiously pursued, that in many instances four families are to be found on a farm, that thirty or forty years ago was possessed only by one; the great object of the proprietor being to obtain cheap service in his fishery.

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The parochial poor are not here supported by pensions, as in Scotland; but a parish is divided into districts, and a certain number of the poor is ballotted upon each. The pauper is sent from house to house, and resides and is supported a certain number of days in each house in succession.

The population is 22,379 persons of both sexes, they have 3571 houses.

GOVERNMENT.

THE union of the crowns under James the First, and the subsequent union of the kingdoms under Queen Anne, having made England and Scotland one realm, under one head, and subject to one political system, it is not necessary, in a work which is not written for the purpose of mere research into antiquity, to mark all the shades of difference between the ancient establishments of the two countries. The rights conceded and the regulations established at the time of the union of the kingdoms leave ample traces of the old government of Scotland, and in treating on the various parts of the modern system, occasional references must be made to remoter times; but the differences between England and Scotland were never so radical as to occasion, at the union, the total abolition of any part of the political system.

THE KING.

THE origin of the Scottish monarchy is carried by some writers to an era 330 years before the birth of Jesus Christ; but although a regular series of names is preserved, making 108 princes, including James the Sixth of Scotland or the First of Great Britain, still there are no vouchers either in enactments, buildings, or contemporary history, for the earlier monarchs of this list; if they reigned, their names alone are left to shew the fact. The origin of the Scots monarchy is by Buchanan, Lesley, and other historians, ascribed to the choice of the chieftains or heads of tribes, who governed the people in an aristocratical manner, after their first arrival in Albion; till, being attacked by the Picts and Britons, and none of those chieftains being willing to submit to any of their own number, they sent to Ireland for Fergus, son to King Ferquhard, to come to their assistance with troops; upon which they owned and acknowledged him king, and the crown has continued in his posterity ever since. The kings of Scot-

land generally took the same title as those of England. King Edgar of England, styled himself *Basileus*, and so did King Edgar of Scotland. King John of England changed the singular number into the plural in all public instruments; and soon after, Alexander II. of Scotland did the same. The common compellation of the Scottish kings, was *Dominus Rex*, and sometimes *Illustrissimus Dominus Ligeus*, and about James the Third's time, *Metuendissimus*. In speaking to them they were called *Grace*, *Highness*, and at last *Majesty*; but their styles have varied in some reigns; for William I. had the title of *Defender of the Church* given him by the then reigning Pope; as that of *Protector of the Christian Faith* was afterwards conferred on James IV., and there was no continued one peculiar to them except that of *By the Grace of God, King of Scotland, or of England, France, and Ireland*.

PATRIMONY. The king's ancient revenue consisted chiefly in crown-lands, which could not be alienated but by act of parliament, and the wardships and marriages of those who held of the crown; but of late years most of the former have been given away, and the tenures of the latter changed, although there has been no general law for taking away the wards. The income of the crown, at the time of the Union, was derived principally from the customs, excise, and land-tax; to which the crown-lands, the post-office, and some other regal rights, made a small addition.

ARMS. The royal arms of Scotland were: *Or*, a lion rampant; *Gules*, armed and langued; *Azure*, with a double tressure, flowered and counterflowered with *flowers-de-lys* of the second, encircled with the order of Scotland, the same being composed of *Rue* and *Thistles*, having the image of St. Andrew with his cross on his breast; above the shield a helmet, answerable to his present majesty's high quality and jurisdiction, with a mantle, *Or*, doubled, *Ermine*, adorned with an imperial crown, beautified with crosses *Patée* and *flowers-de-lys*, surmounted on the top, for his majesty's crest, with a lion *Sejeant*, full faced; *Gules*, crowned; *Or*, holding in his *dexter* paw a naked sword *proper*, and in the *sinister* a sceptre, both erected paleways, supported by two *Unicorns*, *Argent*, crowned with imperial and gorged with open crowns; to the last chains affixed, passing between their fore-legs, and reflexed over their backs, *Or*. He on the *dexter*, embracing and bearing up a banner of cloth of gold, charged with the royal arms of Scotland; and he on the *sinister*, another banner, *Azure*, charged with *St. Andrew's* cross, *Argent*, both standing on a compartment placed underneath, from which issue two thistles, one towards each side of the escutcheon, and for his majesty's motto,

motto, in a scroll above all, *In Defence*; and under, in the table of the compartment, *Nemo me impune laceffit*. The royal badges and ordinary symbols of the kingdom of Scotland are a thistle of gold crowned. The white cross of St. Andrew in a blue field, the standard bearing.

ROYAL PALACES. Although the legislature is removed, and the sovereign of the British dominions does not reside in Scotland, there are still several royal palaces which have their privileges, and their keepers, by being retained, keep up the dignity of the nation.

Holyrood-house. Of these the most conspicuous is Holyrood-house; it was the residence of the ancient kings of Scotland, and is viewed with pride as a monument of ancient good taste and magnificence. It stands at the eastern extremity of the city of Edinburgh, and at the bottom of that part of the High-street named the Canongate. This building has undergone various changes. The north-west towers were built for a royal residence by James the Fifth. It was afterwards burnt by the English in the minority of Queen Mary, but was speedily repaired and rendered a more extensive building than the present. It consisted of five courts; great part of these, however, were burnt by Cromwell's soldiers. It was ordered to be repaired at the Restoration; accordingly the principal part of the present fabric was designed by Sir William Bruce, a celebrated architect in the reign of Charles the Second, and the work was executed by Robert Mylne, who was interred and has a monument in the park adjoining to it, or rather in the burying-ground of the ancient monastery. The palace is a magnificent stone fabric, consisting of a square on all sides decorated with piazzas, and a spacious walk. The western part or front consists of two lofty double towers, joined by a beautiful low building or gallery, adorned with a double ballustrade above; in the middle is a magnificent portico decorated with high stone columns, which support a cupola in form of an imperial crown, underneath which is a clock. Above the porch or principal entry are the royal Scots arms, as borne before the Union. The other three sides of the square are lofty and noble, of three stories in height. The great staircase is equal in grandeur to the rest of the building. The gallery on the north side is 150 feet long; but the breadth is only $27\frac{1}{2}$, and the height 18. This apartment is hung with pictures of a race of 111 monarchs through an imaginary series of 2,000 years. They are of no value, and many of them are much defaced. Here also is the room in which the elections of the Scottish peerage are at present held. It was anciently the royal dining-room; adjoining to it is a

drawing-room and state bed-chamber. The rooms are wainscotted with oak; and the festoons of flowers and foliage over the doors and mantle-pieces are well executed. Adjoining to the palace are to be seen the beautiful Gothic ruins of the chapel or church of Holyrood-house, which is all that now remains of the wealthy abbey founded by David the First, in 1128, and richly endowed. The environs of the abbey of Holyrood-house were formerly considered as a sanctuary to criminals; and they still afford an asylum for insolvent debtors. Adjoining to the palace is an extensive park, first inclosed by James the Fifth, all of which is a sanctuary. The heritable keeper of this palace is the Duke of Hamilton.

Linlithgow. This palace is described in the view of the county of Linlithgow. See p. 88. The keeper is Sir Thomas Livingstone, Bart.

Scoon, another palace, is described in the account of Perthshire at p. 101 of this volume. The Earl of Mansfield is its heritable keeper.

Lochinaben. The castle which bore this name was in Dumfries-shire; it is now a mere ruin: its keeper, the Earl of Hopetoun.

Dunstaffnage Castle. This ancient palace, once the place where the famous chair or seat, considered as the palladium of North Britain, was kept, is in Argyleshire; it is the property of a private gentleman, but the Duke of Argyle has the office of hereditary keeper.

Rothsay. This castle is in the isle of Bute. It is a ruin so completely covered with ivy that few portions of its walls can be seen. Here are still pointed out the bed-chambers and banqueting-rooms of Robert the Second and Third, the last Scottish monarchs who inhabited this venerable pile. This castle was, in succeeding ages, the principal abode of the Stuarts, ancestors of the present family of Bute, long the hereditary constables of the kingdom. It continued to be their residence until it was burned by the Duke of Argyle in the troubles of 1685. It is now fast mouldering away with age; but the Earl of Bute has the title of hereditary keeper of the palace.

Falkland, in Fifeshire, was originally one of the seats of the Macduffs, earls of Fife, and was then called the Castle of Falkland. In the reign of James the First, it was forfeited to the crown. Afterwards it was greatly enlarged and ornamented by James the Fifth; and from the pleasantness of its situation, and the conveniency of the adjacent country for hunting, it was made a royal residence. The south front is yet remarkably entire, and partly inhabited. The east wing was

was accidentally burnt down in the time of Charles II. ; and of it a great part of the naked and mouldering walls still remain. The heir of the Skene family is hereditary keeper.

Dumfermline. This palace is also in Fifeshire. The time when it was built is unknown. A little to the south-east of the town of Dumfermline, in a romantic situation, on the verge of a glen, the south wall of it still remains, and indicates that it must once have been a magnificent fabric. The chimney of the apartment is still pointed out where Charles the First was born. The Marquis of Tweeddale is keeper.

There are other palaces, as *Carrick* and *Denson*, of which the Duke of Argyle is keeper ; and *Lochdoon*, which is committed to the Earl of Cassilis.

OFFICERS OF THE KING.

BESIDE the royal state displayed in retaining these palaces, several offices and appointments are kept up, some of which are hereditary, others are bestowed for life or during pleasure.

The hereditary offices are,

1. THE LORD HIGH STEWARD. The rank of this officer was between the Lord High Chamberlain and the Lord High Constable. He was judge of the king's household, and the whole family of the royal palace was under his care. This office was esteemed of great dignity, and was held heritably for many years by one family, who at last, when surnames came in use, assumed for theirs the name of their office, Steward or Stewart. This was done by Walter the son of Alan, who was at the same time Justiciar to Alexander II., in 1230. This family were frequently nearly allied to the crown, and at last succeeded to it in the person of Robert, eldest son to Walter Stewart, in the year 1371. This Robert was the ninth heritable high steward of Scotland, and his son, afterwards King Robert III., was created by his father prince and steward of Scotland, since which time the eldest son of the king is *natus Seneschallus Scotiae*.

2. THE MASTER OF THE HOUSEHOLD. This is an officer of great dignity in Scotland, and the post, by inheritance, belongs to the Duke of Argyle ; who, as a badge of his office, carries a batton covered with crimson velvet powdered with gold thistles, adorned with imperial crowns. This office appears to be the same with the *Dapifer* or *Seneschallus*, who was *Dominus Domus Regis*, and afterwards was called *Seneschallus Scotiae*. And after the *Seneschally* came to the crown,

these officers were called *Magistri Hospitii Regis*. It was reserved at the Union.

3. DEPUTY MASTER OF THE HOUSEHOLD. Possessor, Sir Alexander Dalmahoy.

4. ROYAL STANDARD BEARER. The Earl of Lauderdale.

5. USHER. This office is equivalent to that of master of the ceremonies of England, for the usher was anciently the introducer of ambassadors to the kings of Scotland; he also attended the king or his high commissioner, and by virtue of his office rode in the solemn cavalcade to parliament. It is an old office, and belongs heritably to the family of the Cockburns of Lanton.

6. CARVER. Sir John Anstruther, of Anstruther.

7. CUP-BEARER. Sir David Carnagie, of Southesk.

8. ARMOUR-BEARER AND SQUIRE OF THE ROYAL BODY. Hugh Seton, of Touch, Esq.

The appointments not hereditary are, *Keeper of the Wardrobe*, salary 55*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.*; *Historiographer*, salary 200*l.*; *Botanist*, salary 50*l.*; *Falconer*, *Physician*, *Apothecary*, and *Linner*.

The officers of the Chapel Royal are,

THE ALMONER, who takes care of the king's poor, to catechise and instruct them. The number of them is according to the years of the king's age; as their badge these children wear a blue gown, which is given them yearly on his majesty's birthday, with as many pence as his majesty has lived years; and on his birth-day the almoner distributes money also among the common poor. His salary is 41*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* He has a deputy.

CHAPLAINS. The chaplains are named out of the established clergy. Four have the title of deans; six are mere chaplains. Their salaries from 80*l.* to 150*l.*

PARLIAMENT.

THE more ancient history of Scotland, like that of other nations, is involved in obscurity and fable. Particular circumstances have also concurred to bring down that obscurity to a later period than otherwise would have happened. Records have perished in times of foreign invasion, and domestic commotion, and the labour of historians has been more employed in commemorating hostilities, discussing their grounds, celebrating victories, and palliating defeats, than in fixing the fugitive traces which ascertain the origin of rights, customs, laws, and establishments. Yet, notwithstanding this darkness attending the Scottish history, it is reasonable to suppose, that even in remote times, the form of government would be similar

lar to that which took place in England after the arrival of the Saxons, and was established, though, perhaps, with some small variations, in the other nations of Europe that were formed upon the ruins of the Roman empire: for, as far back as we can go with any degree of certainty, we discover a limited monarchy; and find, that all matters of consequence, or public concern, were transacted, not by the king alone, but by the king and his great council; and this great council is easily traced to have been of much the same nature with the great council of England during the time of the Saxons, and the reigns of the first princes of the Norman line.

But, although the general form of a parliament is distinctly seen, and although the introductory recital to the statutes of William the First, commonly called *the Lion*, shew that they were enacted by the king with the assistance of his bishops, abbots, barons, and other good men of the realm, (*probi homines terræ suæ*) still it is doubtful what particular class was included in the term *probi homines*; whether they were elected or deputed, or came of their own right, or at the call of the sovereign; whether they represented, or when they began to represent any body, and whom; when boroughs began to send deputies, and when the parliament formed itself into two houses. All these matters are obscure in the history of England, and still more so in that of Scotland, but it is quite certain that the parliament had, long before the union, been composed like that of England, with the exception that the more violent system of ecclesiastical reformation adopted in that country had left no traces of the episcopacy in the great council of the nation.

PEERS. The titles of peerage in Scotland were the same as in England, and their precedence with relation to each other the same. At the period of the Union the roll of peers produced to the house, on the 1st day of May 1707, contained 10 dukes, 3 marquesses, 75 earls, 17 viscounts, and 49 barons; in all 154 peers, to which list, on motion, two or three were added.

By the 22nd article of the Union, it is declared, that “ of
“ the peers of Scotland at the time of the Union, sixteen shall
“ be the number to sit and vote in the House of Lords of the
“ parliament of Great Britain;” and by the act 1707, c. 8., it is ordained, “ that the sixteen peers, or forty-five commis-
“ sioners for shires and boroughs, shall be chosen by the peers,
“ barons, and boroughs respectively, in this present session of
“ parliament, and out of the number thereof, in the same
“ manner as committees of parliament are usually now chosen,
“ who shall be members of the respective houses of the said

“ first parliament of Great Britain, for and on the part of
 “ Scotland.” The members on the part of Scotland being
 elected, her majesty agreeably to the powers vested in the
 crown, declared the members of the parliament of England, as
 it then stood, (April 30.) to be members of the respective
 houses of the first parliament of Great Britain on the part of
 England,

The mode of electing and the principal cases that have re-
 gulated the rights of the peers are noticed in Vol. I. p. 208.

As the king is precluded by the act of union from creating
 peers of Scotland, and as those peers of that country who have
 received patents of peerage in England cannot be elected
 among the sixteen, although they have a right to vote at their
 election, the number out of which the return must be made is,
 by the extinction of some families, and by the additional
 honours acquired by others, considerably reduced. The num-
 ber at the present time appears to be 1 duke, 2 marquisses,
 34 earls, 2 viscounts and 22 barons; the whole list being
 thus reduced from 154 to 61.

RANK AND PRIVILEGES. The representation of the peerage
 being settled, the ranks and immunities of the nobility of
 Scotland were fixed at the Union, by a resolution of the com-
 missioners, “ that all the peers of Scotland, and their successors
 “ to their honours and dignities, be from and after the Union,
 “ reckoned and declared peers of Great Britain, and that they
 “ enjoy, in their respective degrees and orders, and all other
 “ titles, dignities, pre-eminencies, immunities, and privileges
 “ whatsoever, as fully and freely as the peers of England do
 “ at present, or the peers of Britain may enjoy hereafter;
 “ provided that no peer, who shall not then have the right to
 “ sit in parliament, shall be capable of sitting upon the trial of
 “ any peer; and also, that no peer, not having right to sit in
 “ parliament, shall have privilege of parliament. And also
 “ that the peers of Scotland for the time being, and their suc-
 “ cessors, do, at, and after the Union, according to their different
 “ degrees and orders, enjoy the rank and precedence of all
 “ peers to be thereafter created of the like orders and degrees
 “ in the United Kingdom; provided always, that it be under-
 “ stood, that all persons who shall be peers of England at the
 “ time of the Union, shall for ever enjoy the rank and order of
 “ precedence of their respective degrees, before the same
 “ degrees of the peers of Scotland.” This resolution was ex-
 plained and extended by others, declaring that “ *all* peers of
 “ Scotland, and their successors to their honours and dignities,
 “ shall, from and after the Union, be reckoned and declared
 “ peers of Great Britain, and shall be tried as peers of Great
 “ Britain,

“ Britain, and shall enjoy the privileges of peers, as fully as
 “ the peers of England do now enjoy the same, or as they or
 “ any other peers of Britain may hereafter enjoy the same,
 “ except the right and privilege of sitting in the House of Lords,
 “ and the privileges depending thereon, and particularly the
 “ right of sitting upon the trials of peers. That the sixteen
 “ peers who are to sit in the House of Lords of Great Britain,
 “ for that part of the United Kingdom called Scotland, after
 “ the Union, shall have all privileges of parliament which the
 “ peers of England now have, and which they or any peers of
 “ Britain shall have after the Union, and particularly the right
 “ of sitting upon the trials of peers. That in case of the trial
 “ of any peer in time of adjournment or prorogation of par-
 “ liament, the said 16 peers shall be summoned in the same
 “ manner, and have the same powers and privileges at such
 “ trials as any other peers of Great Britain. And that in
 “ case any trials of peers shall hereafter happen, when there
 “ is no parliament in being, the 16 peers of Scotland who sat
 “ in the last preceding parliament, shall be summoned in the
 “ same manner, and have the same powers and privileges at
 “ such trials as any other peers of Great Britain.”

COMMONS. It has already been mentioned that since the Union the representation of the commons of Scotland in the British house has been effected by the introduction of 45 members, of whom 30 sit for counties, one for the city of Edinburgh and 14 for the royal boroughs, divided into districts, and each district returning one member.

ANCIENT STATE. Before the Union, the lower house of parliament was composed of the representatives of shires and of royal boroughs. The shires were called in the Scottish parliament in the order subjoined, and each returned the number of commissioners annexed to its name.

COUNTIES.		COUNTIES.	
Edinburgh	4	Renfrew	3
Haddington	4	Stirling	3
Berwick	4	Linlithgow	2
Roxburgh	4	Perth	2
Selkirk	3	Kincardine	2
Peebles	2	Aberdeen	4
Lanark	4	Inverness	2
Dumfries	4	Nairn	2
Wigtoun	2	Cromarty	1
Air	4	Argyle	3
Dumbarton	2	Fife	4
Bute	2	Kinross	1
		Forfar	

COUNTIES.				COUNTIES.			
Forfar	-	-	4	Elgin	-	-	2
Banff	-	-	2	Orkney and Zetland	-	-	2
Kirkcudbright	-	-	2	Clackmannan	-	-	1
Sutherland	-	-	2	Ross	-	-	2
Caithness	-	-	2				

BOROUGHs. The boroughs which returned commissioners were as follow: each was represented by one member, except the capital, which had two.

Edinburgh, Perth, Dundee, Aberdeen, Stirling, Linlithgow, St. Andrew's, Glasgow, Air, Haddington, Dysart, Kirkcaldy, Montrose, Cowper, Anstruther Easter, Dumfries, Inverness, Burnt Island, Inverkeithing, Kinghorn, Brechin, Jedburgh, Kirkcudbright, Wigtoun, Dumfermline, Pittenweem, Selkirk, Dumbarton, Renfrew, Dunbar, Lanark, Aberbrothick, Elgin, Peebles, Crail, Tayn, Culrofs, Banff, Whithorn, Forfar, Rothesay, Nairn, Forres, Rutherglen, North Berwick, Anstruther Wester, Cullen, Lauder, Kintore, Annand, Lochmabin, Sanquhar, New Galloway, Kilrennie, Fortrose, Dingwall, Dornoch, Queensferry, Inverury, Inverary, Wick, Kirkwall, Inverbervie, Stranrauer, Campbeltown.

Thus the total number of the Scottish house of commons was 158; the shires returning 91, the boroughs 67.

MODERN REPRESENTATION. The manner in which the Scottish boroughs are to be classed in order to return members to the British house of commons is, by the treaty of Union, declared as follows:

For the boroughs of Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tayne, 1.

For the boroughs of Fortrose, Inverness, Nairn, and Forres, 1.

For the boroughs of Elgin, Cullen, Banff, Inverury, and Kintore, 1.

For the boroughs of Aberdeen, Inverbervie, Montrose, Aberbrothock, and Brechin, 1.

For the boroughs of Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrew's, 1.

For the boroughs of Crail, Kilrennie, Anstruther Easter, Anstruther Wester, and Pittenweem, 1.

For the boroughs of Dysart, Kirkcaldy, Kinghorn, and Burnt Island, 1.

For the boroughs of Inverkeithing, Dumfermline, Queensferry, Culrofs, and Stirling, 1.

For the boroughs of Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton, 1.

For

For the boroughs of Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh, 1.

For the boroughs of Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanark, 1.

For the boroughs of Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaben, and Kirkcudbright, 1.

For the boroughs of Wigtoun, New Galloway, Stranrauer, and Whitehern, 1.

And for the boroughs of Air, Irvine, Rothesay, Campbeltown, and Inverary, 1.

QUALIFICATION OF COUNTY MEMBERS AND ELECTORS.
The first regular representation of the counties was introduced by the act 1587, c. 114., which provides, that the commissioner to be sent to parliament shall be a freeholder and resident within the county within which he claims a right to vote. Two commissioners are directed to be chosen for each county at the first court after Michaelmas, and of the election intimation was to be made to Chancery. This rule was somewhat enlarged by the statute 1661, c. 35., in order to suit those new proprietors to whom the church lands had been conveyed. Accordingly it is enacted, that all who formerly held of bishops or abbots, and those holding of his majesty, &c. whose yearly rent amounted to 10 chalders of victual, or 1000*l.* Scots of free rent, shall be entitled to elect or be elected commissioners to parliament. This explanatory statute required still further explanation, and, there being now a new valuation of the kingdom, the whole system was brought under the review of parliament. In the year 1681, c. 21., it is declared that none shall have a right to vote but those who stand publicly infeft in property or superiority, and are in possession of a 40*l.* land of old extent, holding of the king or prince; or (where the old extent does not appear) are in possession of land held in the same manner, and liable in public burdens for his majesty's supply, of 400*l.* of valued rent. This act denies the privilege of voting to adjudgers during the currency of the legal extent, but after its expiry gives a right to vote to the adjudger first infeft. The proper wadsetter, in lands of the legal extent, is declared to have a right to vote. Apparent heirs in possession are entitled to vote in right of the ancestor's infeftment, and husbands are declared to have the same privilege in right of their wives, or under their rights of courtesy.

Having in this manner described their qualification, this statute directs the freeholders of each shire or stewartry, having election of commissioner, " to meet at the head borough on
" the first Tuesday of May then next, and make up a roll of
" all

“ all the freeholders of the county, continuing or adjourning
 “ their meetings until the rolls for elections be complete ; and
 “ the said freeholders are ordered to meet at the head borough
 “ of the said shires or stewartries respective, at the Michaelmas
 “ head court yearly thereafter, and shall revise the said roll for
 “ election, and make such alterations thereon as have occurred
 “ since their last meeting, from time to time, which roll for
 “ election shall be inserted in the sheriff or steward books,
 “ particularly appointed for that end, according as they shall
 “ be stated each Michaelmas court.” The freeholders standing on the roll are thus made judges, in the first instance, of all that relates to the roll, and, while parliament is not sitting, a power of review of the proceedings of the freeholders is given to the court of session.

The great object of the Michaelmas head court is to preserve regularity and purity in the roll of freeholders, and, with this view, admission to the roll is guarded with much care. The claim to be admitted on the roll of freeholders must describe the titles on which the claim stands, that all may know the nature of the claim ; and it must be presented so long before the Michaelmas meeting as to enable the freeholders to investigate the title. This is regulated by the 16 Geo. II. § 11., which enacts, “ That to prevent all surprize
 “ at the Michaelmas meeting, every freeholder who intends
 “ to claim to be enrolled at any subsequent Michaelmas meeting of the freeholders, shall for the space of two calendar
 “ months at least before the said Michaelmas meeting, leave
 “ with the sheriff or steward clerk a copy of his claim, setting
 “ forth the names of his lands and his titles thereto, and dates
 “ thereof, with the old extent or valuation upon which he
 “ desires to be enrolled ; and, in case of his neglect to leave
 “ his claims as aforesaid, he shall not be enrolled at such
 “ Michaelmas meeting.” Further, the sheriff-clerk is required,
 “ on receipt of the claim, to endorse on the back thereof the
 “ day he received the same, and also to give a copy of the
 “ aforesaid claim to any person who shall demand the same,
 “ upon paying the legal fee of an ordinary extract of the same
 “ length.” This claim, having been thus duly lodged, is produced to the freeholders signed either by the claimant or by a person authorized to act for him. When the claimant is abroad at the time of presenting the claim, a special mandate, authorizing the claim to be entered, has been required by the court. The claim of enrolment being in this manner made, entered, and subscribed, it does not follow as a matter of course that it must be taken up by the freeholders at the Michaelmas meeting ; for unless it be moved to the meeting
 by

by the claimant, or by some person appointed by him, or in possession of the titles, (for the possession of the titles implies a mandate when the claimant is within the kingdom), the freeholders are guilty of no omission in allowing it to lie over, nor is the clerk to the meeting bound to move it. The claimant appears in person, or some one appears in his name, possessed of his titles, or properly authorized to appear for him. The first thing, after moving the meeting to take the claim into consideration, is to produce the titles founded on by the claimant, and also evidence of the valuation, or of the old extent of the lands. The connecting links of the titles, as retours, &c., commonly called midcouples, must also be produced; and the evidence of the old extent or valuation must be equally exact. These particulars being attended to, and the claimant, or the person empowered by him, having produced, with the claims, the radical titles, consisting of the crown-charter, seisin, and connecting titles; with the evidence of the old extent or valuation of the estate, he then moves the claim to the meeting. Where there are objections, they are stated by the freeholders, and answers are made in support of the claim; they are afterwards furnished in writing to the clerk of the meeting, and entered in his minutes. The claim is then put to the vote; the same thing happens where there are no objections, and, consistently with the state of the vote, the claim is admitted or dismissed.

Thus, then, at this day, in order to qualify a person to elect or be elected a member of parliament to represent a county, he must not only be a commoner, of the full age of twenty-one, of sane mind, and under no religious or legal disqualification; but he must have stood in feist during the space of a year, and have been in possession as an immediate vassal holding of the crown or prince, absolutely and irredeemably, either in fee or in life-rent, of the property or superiority of lands, mills, teinds, or fishings, retoured to forty shillings of old extent, prior to 1681, or valued at 400*l.* Scots; or he must be the apparent heir of a person holding such a qualification; or the husband of a female proprietor, who, if she does not hold her freehold feudally vested in her as an heir, must have been in feist for the space of a year. Land is the basis of the freehold qualification; but although the statutes use this term, it is to be understood in a liberal sense, and as equivalent to *estate*. Accordingly, many subjects are received as lands in the meaning of the act. *Mills*, where they have been valued, are the undoubted ground of a freehold qualification, and are subjects capable of making part of a cumulo, wherever they have
affixed

astricted multures; where they have none, and are to be considered as nothing more than machines capable of performing part of the agricultural labour, whether they may form any part of a cumulo may be doubted. In the same way, *fishings* form a sound basis of a qualification, whether they consist of salmon fishings or other fishings, as oysters, muscles, or even white fishing in the sea. *Feu duties* also form the ground of a qualification, and in splitting a cumulo of feu duties, payable at the general valuation, a portion of the cumulo will be assigned to the feu duties due to the superior. *Teinds*, in the same manner, may ground a qualification, where the claim is made by the proprietors of the lands, out of which the teinds are due; whether they would found a qualification in favour of a third party has not yet been decided. But *heritable offices*, though feudalized and retoured, have not been received as the foundation of a freeholder's title. The discussion of the right of electing and being elected, has given rise to a great variety of decisions, and the desire of gaining or increasing influence, has occasioned recourse to many devices for the purpose of creating temporary and occasional freeholds. These have been met, as in England, by statutes enacting prohibitions, and prescribing oaths; but it is not to be supposed that legislative measures can effectually restrain practices to which men are led by the ostensible desire of promoting a public good, and from the detection of which, if they avoid great crimes, such as perjury and subordination, no permanent disgrace ensues.

SUTHERLAND. A remarkable anomaly in the election-law of Scotland is the case of the county of Sutherland. This shire being almost entirely held of the family of Sutherland, the lesser proprietors, holding of that family, were in a manner unrepresented; and that state of matters seems to have introduced a practice that was sanctioned by custom, and was at last attended with such inconvenience as to attract the attention of the legislature, and to require rules necessary for removing the improprieties in the practice, and capable of restricting the exercise of the right of franchise within bounds analogous to those of the other counties in Scotland. The most remarkable extension of the right of freehold consisted in several persons claiming to vote in right of the same freehold; for as the situation of the greater part of the county required that the vassals of the family of Sutherland should enjoy a freehold, this privilege was claimed and exercised by others, so that an individual holding of the crown, and claiming, as he certainly was entitled to do, a freehold qualification as a crown vassal; his sub-vassal in like manner made the

same claim, and from the analogy of the rights enjoyed by the vassals of the Earl of Sutherland, he was admitted to the privilege of a freeholder, equally with his immediate superior, the crown vassal. The extent also of the valuation was disregarded, so that the right of freehold in this county was subjected to no rule whatever, when the matter was taken up by the statute 16 Geo. II. cap. 11., which on a narrative, that by the practices that had prevailed in the county of Sutherland, "votes had been unduly multiplied, and several persons have claimed a vote in respect of the superiority and property of the same lands, whereby great confusions are likely to ensue in future elections," enacts, that after the 1st of September 1743, no person shall be capable to be elected commissioner for the said shire, or shall have right to vote at such election, "unless he be infeft, and in possession of lands liable to his majesty's supplies and other public burthens, at the rate of 200*l.* Scots valued rent." "That one person, and no more, shall be entitled to vote at such elections, or be elected, in respect of the same lands; and that where lands are now holden by any baron or other freeholder, immediately of the king or prince, such baron or freeholder shall be capable to be elected, and shall be entitled to vote for those lands, and no vassal or sub-vassal of the said baron or freeholder shall have right to vote, or be elected in respect thereof; and that where lands are now holden, or shall at any time hereafter be holden of the king or prince, by a peer or other person, or body politic or corporate, who by law are disabled to be a member of the House of Commons, or to vote in such elections; in such case, the proprietor and owner of such lands, and not any of his superiors, shall be entitled to vote, or be elected in respect of the same lands, and that no alienation of the superiority to be made by such peer or other person, or body politic, incapable to elect or be elected, shall deprive the proprietor or owner of the lands of his right to vote in the election for the said shire, or his capacity to be elected; and that the property of lands of valuation aforesaid, (200*l.*) holden in part immediately of the king or prince, and in part of a peer, or other person, or body politic, incapable to elect or be elected, shall be a sufficient qualification to the proprietor and owner of such lands, and shall entitle such proprietor to vote and to be elected for the said shire, any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding."

From this enactment it appears, 1. That the valuation in the county of Sutherland which constitutes a freehold qualification

cation in place of 400*l.* is reduced to 200*l.* 2. That a person holding lands of the requisite valuation of the king or prince, may be enrolled on a mere superiority, in the same way as in any other county. 3. That where the lands are held not of the king or prince, but of a peer or other person, or body politic, incapable of electing or being elected, it is not the immediate vassal of such superior, but the sub-vassal in possession, the person possessed of the *dominium utile* of the lands, that is entitled to vote: and, lastly, where the qualification is composed partly of lands held of the crown, and partly of lands held of a peer, &c., the lands must be the property of the claimant. The distinguishing mark, therefore, betwixt the constitution of a freehold in the county of Sutherland, and in any other county, consists in the extent of valuation being lowered; and in requiring the claimant wherever he holds of a peer, or of those incapable of voting, to be proprietor of the lands on which he claims. It is farther enacted by the said statute, that the freeholders of the county should meet at the head-borough of the shire, at the Michaelmas head-court, 1745, and make up “a roll of
 “electors having right to vote in the choice of a commis-
 “sioner, in terms of the present act, and the other acts of
 “parliament made touching the election of commissioners
 “for the shires in Scotland; and which roll so made up
 “shall be revised yearly at the Michaelmas meetings, and at
 “and after elections, according to the rules prescribed in this
 “act, and in other acts made for regulating the elections of
 “commissioners for shires in that part of Great Britain called
 “Scotland; and it is declared, that the said acts of parlia-
 “ment do extend to the shire of Sutherland, as well as to
 “the other shires in Scotland, except in so far as it is other-
 “wise provided by this present act.”

DISQUALIFICATIONS. As the roll made up at the Michaelmas head-court is decisive as to the right of electing or being elected, objections much more nice have been admitted as general rules, than those which are enforced at the poll in England. It has been decided that being the delegate of a body corporate which holds lands in fee, does not entitle a man to be on the freeholder's roll. That *minority*, *lunacy*, and *fatuity* are, while they last, disqualifications. There is a state known to the Scottish law, by the term *interdiction*; it is a form by which persons, who though so weak as not to be trusted with the total management of their affairs, yet are not in a situation to be found lunatic, may be restrained from disposing of their heritage without the consent of certain persons, who are termed their interdictors. A legal interdiction is an act of the court of session, pronounced after taking cognizance
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of the person's situation. A voluntary interdiction is a private act of the person himself; who, sensible of his own weakness or profusion, grants a bond, by which he restrains himself from disposing of his heritage without the consent of certain friends therein named. It is doubted whether this state does or does not disqualify. Even in legal interdiction, it is said, there is not required to sanction the restraint any thing more than evidence of that profusion and facility which admits of imposition, but which is far from that imbecility or idiocy which is sufficient to deprive the individual of the total management of his affairs. Interdiction extends only to heritage, and leaves the interdicted person at full liberty in regard to his moveable estate; and with regard to voluntary interdiction, the slightest grounds suffice as the foundation of the restraint. At the same time it may be proper to observe, that Spottiswood, who wrote on the subject, says expressly, "A person interdicted cannot be elected." He, however, gives neither reason nor authority for the assertion.

Popery is a complete disqualification. The statute of 1707 declares, "That none shall be capable to elect, or be elected, for any of the said estates; but such as are twenty-one years of age complete, and protestant, excluding all papists, or such, who being suspected of popery, and required, refuse to swear and subscribe the formula contained in the 3d act, made in the 8th and 9th session of King William's parliament, entitled, 'Act for preventing Growth of Popery.'" Under this enactment, the enrollment of a papist may be objected to, and his removal from the roll, even when enrolled, may at all times be enforced by requiring him to take the formula; nor will his having remained for four months on the roll afford any ground for retaining him on the roll. This formula is not repealed by the 33d Geo. III. c. 44. A *non-juror* would be equally disqualified; but as the offence cannot be proved without the evidence of witnesses, or the acknowledgment of the party to whom the objection is made; and as the court of freeholders had no original jurisdiction by which they can examine witnesses, nor even if they could cite witnesses to appear, do their forms seem well to admit of a warrant of citation being given, the evidence necessary for proving this objection cannot be brought forward.

The *eldest son of a Scottish peer* cannot represent a Scottish county or borough in the British parliament. He may represent an English county or borough; and the son of a British peer may represent a Scottish borough or county; as may an Irish peer.

The disqualifications contained in the 22d Geo. III. c. 41., and which are already enumerated in vol. I. p. 236. extend to Scotland; and persons convicted of bribery, perjury or subornation are also disqualified. It may be doubted whether a person rendered infamous by the sentence of a court, is deprived of his right of franchise. But in the questions which came from the county of Sutherland in 1741, a freeholder having been declared infamous by the Court of Session, in terms of the act 1621, in regard to fraudulent bankruptcy, it was found no sufficient objection to his voting or being inrolled. Lord Elchies preserves the case, and subjoins this remark: "Several differed, and thought the objection good; " others of us (*inter quos ego*) were not clear, and did not " vote."

MICHAELMAS HEAD-COURT. This court is created for one single act, the clearing and adjusting of the roll. It is empowered to turn from the roll those who have no right to remain, or to admit those who shall prove their title to be enrolled. It has no continuation of days, and no power of reviewing the proceedings of a former court. The whole jurisdiction and authority of this court is founded on statute alone. The election statute prescribes in what cases it shall act, and by what evidence it shall decide; each Michaelmas head-court seems to be completely insulated, and its judgments to be reviewable only by the Court of Session. In this court the freeholders, who are the judges, have also the interests of parties. The questions that come before them tend to increase the number of freeholders, and so touch on that right of franchise, in which all of them have an interest. In this respect the Michaelmas head-court is peculiar, and the statutes by which its jurisdiction is given have been careful to place its decisions under the immediate and summary review of the supreme civil court. Each head-court, therefore, is to be considered as totally unconnected with any other. Whatever is done amiss there, is reviewed by the Court of Session, and the orders of that court of review are carried into execution, not by the court that originally pronounced the decision, but by the sheriff-clerk.

The place of meeting is provided for by the act 1681, which declares, that the election of commissioners, either at the Michaelmas court, or at the calling of parliament, (and the same prevails at the common Michaelmas head-courts,) the said freeholders "shall meet and convene at " the headborough of the shire or stewartry, in that room " where the sheriff or steward-court useth to be held betwixt " mid-day and two in the afternoon; which room shall be " patent

“ patent to them, and all others removed, but whom they
 “ call. And by f. 18. of the 16th Geo. II. c. 11., it is en-
 “ acted, that the Michaelmas head-court shall be held in
 “ all time to come, on the day to which it shall appear to the
 “ sheriff or steward-depute to have been most usually held in
 “ times past; and, to prevent all uncertainty in time coming,
 “ the days of meeting to be fixed by the sheriff, shall be the
 “ anniversary for holding the Michaelmas head-court of the
 “ said shire or stewartry in all time coming.” In this manner,
 the members of the Michaelmas head-court, the place, and
 the time of meeting are ascertained; but to enable them to
 act as a court, a preses and clerk must be chosen.

Although this court has no power of review, and no power
 of altering or affecting what has been done at a former meet-
 ing, the practice of the court of freeholders is to permit the
 same claim to be presented over and over again; for although
 a claim has been thrown out at one meeting, it may not only
 be presented at the next, but it may be received, and the
 claimant admitted to the roll, so little connexion is there be-
 twixt the proceedings of one court and another.

In the proceedings of this court, it is material that the
 parties aggrieved by its decision should have the proper means
 of redress, as well as that the expence to which the free-
 holders may expose themselves by rash or by partial decisions
 should affect those only by whom the act has been done; on
 this account, the minutes of the meeting ought to contain
 evidence both of what was done, and by whom. The claim-
 ant, or freeholder aggrieved, protests for redress, and takes
 instruments in the hands of the clerk; the grounds of the pro-
 test ought to be stated in writing, and furnished to the clerk,
 that he may insert them in the minutes. The minutes of the
 meeting represent what has been done. The first part is au-
 thenticated by the parliamentary preses and sheriff-clerk; the
 after-part of the minutes, after stating the procedure and the
 names of the freeholders by whom motions were made, or
 who voted in the questions decided by the meeting, gives the
 roll of freeholders as adjusted by the meeting; and the whole
 is authenticated by the subscription of the preses and clerk to
 the meeting.

COURT OF SESSION. In the proceedings of the Michaelmas
 head-court, the claims of enrolment are judged of in the first
 instance; and the power of the Court of Session in rectifying
 any acts of injustice that the decisions of the freeholders may
 have occasioned, is solely as a court of the review, under
 powers conferred by special statute; while the power of review
 in the House of Peers is the natural and necessary consequence

of the super-eminent jurisdiction which the constitution has placed in that high-court. By the act 1681, c. 21., the confusion arising from elections was attempted to be regulated by rejecting every ground of complaint that did not appear in the protests regularly taken at the election. The act bears: "And
 " if the objectors shall not be cleared and acquiesce, they shall
 " take instruments containing their objections against the ad-
 " mitting to or excluding any person from the foresaid roll;
 " and it is hereby declared, that no other objection shall be
 " competent in parliament, or convention, but what shall be
 " contained in the instruments taken as aforesaid." In this manner the disputed points for discussion in parliament were ascertained, and the jurisdiction of the Court of Session was conferred by the following provisions; "and in case objections
 " be made when a parliament or convention is not called, a
 " particular diet shall be appointed by the meeting, and inti-
 " mate to the parties contraverting to attend the Lords of
 " Session for their determination, who shall determine the
 " same at the said diet summarily, according to law, upon
 " supplication, without further citation." This was the whole jurisdiction enjoyed by the Court of Session, in regard to the qualification of freeholders, down to the 16th Geo. II. c. 11., which on a narrative that the rolls of freeholders had in some instances been neglected to be made up, appoints the freeholders then on the roll to form the constituent members of that roll; and empowers any freeholder at any time before the 1st of December 1743, to supply by summary complaint to the Court of Session, and to object to the title of any freeholder standing on the roll, and provides that no such freeholder shall be struck off or left out of the roll, except on sufficient objections arising from the alteration of that right or title, in respect of which he was enrolled. By this act the jurisdiction of the Court of Session is conferred. It is obviously a mere power of review, and the cases pointed out are: 1. Where a claimant is refused to be admitted to the roll, in which case he may complain of the refusal: 2. Where a claimant has been improperly admitted, his admission may be made the subject of complaint by any freeholder standing on the roll; and 3. A person once standing on the roll, who has been struck off, may complain of such judgment; and in all cases the jurisdiction of the court continues only for four months, so that if the necessary complaint be not lodged within four months of the act complained of, the court has no jurisdiction whatever. The jurisdiction of the Court of Session, as now understood, embraces all the questions that can arise from admitting or rejecting a claim, or
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from sustaining or repelling an objection to a freeholder remaining on the roll, or from any act of the freeholders that may be equivalent to a decision in any one of these cases. And besides the jurisdiction enjoyed by the court as a court of review of the proceedings of the freeholders, they enjoy an original jurisdiction where the patrimonial interests of the freeholders are truly concerned.

ELECTION OF A COUNTY MEMBER. It is a general rule that none can be elected but those who may elect, yet it does not hold, that all who can elect may be elected; for, by statute, certain disabilities to the power of being elected are established, which do not go the length of depriving the persons disabled of the power of electing. By statute 6th Anne, c. 7. § 30. every person disabled from being elected in the House of Commons in England, is disabled to be elected in the House of Commons of Great Britain. The disabilities here alluded to are enumerated in vol. i. p. 233. The forms observed at the election do not differ so materially from those in England as to require specification; but as the roll made out at the Michaelmas head-court regulates the proceeding, the bustle, tumult, and conflict which are prevalent at elections in England are never seen.

BOROUGH. A royal borough is a corporate body erected by the sovereign, composed of the inhabitants of a certain tract of ground. This erection is constituted by a royal charter, under which the magistracy hold of the crown the property of the borough, for behoof of the inhabitants, and to whom they give and renew those titles which the transmissions of property amongst the inhabitants require. The power of election of the office bearers, or magistrates of the community was originally in the burghesses. But this power has by statute been given to the magistrates and council, according to what is termed the *set* of the borough. Before the Union of the two kingdoms, the city of Edinburgh sent two, and every other royal borough one representative to the Scottish parliament: but by the articles of Union fifteen representatives of boroughs only are to be sent to the parliament of Great Britain, of whom the city of Edinburgh elects one, and the other fourteen representatives are chosen by fourteen different districts of boroughs, into which the other royal boroughs of Scotland have been classed. The election, therefore, of a representative is managed differently in the city of Edinburgh from what happens in other electing boroughs.

The management of royal boroughs, and what related to the rights and privileges of burghesses, was formerly under the controul of the Lord Chamberlain, assisted by commissioners or

delegates from the boroughs of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, and Roxburgh; and while Berwick and Roxburgh were held by the English, their places were supplied by Lanark and Linlithgow, whence it got the name of the COURT of the FOUR BOROUGHs. This court was in use to call commissioners from the other royal boroughs to treat and determine upon matters respecting the boroughs in general; and hence it is reasonably supposed, the convention of the royal boroughs had its origin, though it was acknowledged only by the statute 1487, c. 3. By subsequent statutes, the convention was allowed to meet four times a year, though, for a long time past, they have only met annually on the second Tuesday of July. It is this court which has come in a considerable degree to affect the *sets* of the royal boroughs; or, in other words, the *schemes* of election of the magistracy of the different boroughs. Originally, the magistrates of royal boroughs were elected by a poll of the burghesses, but by the act 1469, c. 30., the right of election was changed from the burghesses at large to the council, so that the old council elected the new, and both of them the magistracy. The same act requires, that the magistrates and council shall remain in office only for one year. But there is no general rule with regard to the number of councillors or magistrates, nor any precise mode of election pointed out, each borough has its own constitution or set, founded on ancient usage, or regulated by the convention of royal boroughs.

There are here two bodies marked out, the officiares, as they are called, or the magistracy, consisting of the provost, bailies, &c., and the council. The council again are chosen from the merchants and trades of the borough, and the trades form different subordinate corporations, who act each in a body, the head of whom is an officer chosen annually, termed the *deacon* of the trade, who is preses of the meeting of each of these subordinate corporations, and who, in all questions relating to the corporation, has a decisive or casting vote. In some boroughs, the deacons of the trades are councillors *ex officio*; in others, so many of them only are elected into the council; and this election may be made by the council from the deacons chosen by the trades, or it may be made from leets of the corporation prepared by the deacons. Sometimes even the deacons of the trades are chosen from leets prepared by the trades, submitted to the council, who lessen the leets, by striking off part of the names; and then the lessened leet being returned to the trade, forms the leet of names from which the trades choose their deacons. In short, the set or constitution of the borough, which regulates all these points, differs in an

infinite variety of ways, as the constitution of the borough is more or less aristocratical.

The election of the magistracy and council must include the deacons, accordingly as the deacons constitute part of that council *ex officio*. But the subject will be best understood by referring to the laws regulating these elections, and by the rules and exceptions which the decisions of the court have introduced.

In the laws relative to the election of magistrates, where every election depends on rules peculiar to each borough, it has been impossible to do more than to prescribe general rules, and to order the particular complained of in an election to be instantly brought to trial in a summary manner before the Court of Session. This has been done, *first*, by rendering it competent to any magistrate or councillor who apprehends any wrong to have been done at an annual election, to bring his action before the Court of Session within eight weeks after the election, for the rectification of such wrong, 7th Geo. II. c. 16. § 7.; *second*, by a more direct enactment, 16th Geo. II. c. 11. § 21., which, in general terms, brings every abuse under the cognizance of the court, but leaves the particular abuse to be ascertained by an examination of the particular *set* or constitution of the borough, under which the election may have been made.

The disputes that usually arose out of borough elections came, in general, in the shape of double returns, and it was a great object with the legislature to put a stop to this evil. Accordingly, the 7th Geo. II. c. 16. § 6., declared that every election to be made by any magistrates or councillors in opposition to the majority, should be *ipso facto* void; and that every magistrate or councillor concurring therein, should forfeit 100*l.* sterling, to the magistrates and councillors from whom they so separated, to be recovered on a summary complaint before the Court of Session, on 15 days' notice. The same point was more particularly regulated by the 16th Geo. II. c. 11., which also provides, that no person elected by a minority shall, upon any pretence, presume to act as a magistrate or councillor, and every person offending in that respect shall forfeit 100*l.* sterling, to be recovered in the same summary manner by any of the magistrates or councillors elected by the majority, who shall sue for the same.

It is to those means, that is, by suppressing the abuses common in election cases, and by banishing double returns by the terror of penalties, the legislature has trusted for abating much of the litigation and irregularity with which borough elections were attended.

EDINBURGH. The statutory regulations applicable to the election of the city of Edinburgh, are comprised in the following clause of the act of the sixth of Queen Anne, cap. 6. § 5.: “ And as to the manner of election of the fifteen representatives of the royal boroughs, the sheriff of the shire of
“ Edinburgh shall, on the receipt of the writ directed to him,
“ forthwith direct his precept to the Lord Provost of Edinburgh, to cause a burges to be elected for that city, and
“ on receipt of such precept, the city of Edinburgh shall elect
“ their member, and their common clerk shall certify his name
“ to the sheriff of Edinburgh, who shall annex it to his writ,
“ and return it.” The right of electing the members sent from the city of Edinburgh to the parliament was before the Union, and consequently is still, in the magistrates and town council. The town council consists, in all, of thirty-three persons, viz. a lord provost, four bailies, a dean-of-guild, a treasurer, an old provost, four old bailies, an old dean-of-guild, an old treasurer, three merchant councillors, two trades councillors, and fourteen deacons of crafts, or companies of tradesmen. The business is, in general, conducted by what is called the ordinary council, which consists only of twenty-five, being composed of the lord provost, the four bailies, the dean-of-guild, the treasurer, the old provost, the four old bailies, the old dean-of-guild, the old treasurer, the three merchant councillors, the two trades councillors, and six out of the fourteen deacons, who are annually chosen to be of the council, according to a decree arbitral of James VI. The extraordinary council consists of the above-named twenty-five, and of the other eight deacons of crafts, who not being members of the ordinary council, are, on that account, termed extraordinary deacons, or deacons not of the council. It is unnecessary to enter into a minute detail of the different steps of procedure in the annual election of the magistrates and council. The fourteen deacons are first elected by their respective corporations or companies, and, upon the next council day, are presented to the ordinary council of the preceding year, who, out of them, choose six to be of the council for the year ensuing, upon which the six old council deacons remove, and have no further concern in the election. The next step is for the remaining nineteen members of the former council, and the six new deacons, to choose three merchant councillors and two trades councillors, who, with the then provost, bailies, dean-of-guild, and treasurer, and the provost, bailies, dean-of-guild, and treasurer, to be chosen afterwards, and the six new deacons, are to compose the ordinary council of twenty-five for the ensuing year. This is done upon the Wednesday preceding

ceding Michaelmas, and, upon the next Tuesday after that feast, the whole business is finished, by the election of the lord provost, bailies, dean-of-guild, and treasurer, in which the new council, consisting then of eighteen, and the old council, reduced to twelve, and the eight extraordinary deacons, making in all thirty-eight, are entitled to vote.

ELECTION IN A DISTRICT OF BOROUGH. The writ of election, when it comes into the hands of the sheriff, must be indorsed by him on the day he receives it, and within four days he must make out a precept to each borough within his jurisdiction. By this precept the commissioner to be elected is ordered to meet at the presiding borough of the district, upon the 30th day after the *teste* of the writ, or on the next day if it fall upon a Sunday, for the purpose of choosing a burghers to serve in parliament. The sheriff must likewise cause these precepts to be delivered within the four days to the chief magistrates residing in the boroughs for the time; and if he neglect his duty in these particulars, he for every offence forfeits 100*l.* sterling, to any of the magistrates of the borough, whose precept has not been timeously delivered, who shall sue for it. The magistrate, to whom the precept is delivered, must in like manner indorse upon its back the day it comes to his hand, and, within two days after, must call a meeting of the council of the borough, by giving notice personally, or leaving notice at the dwelling-house of every councillor then residing within it. And in case he neglect to do so, he for every offence forfeits 100*l.* to any magistrate or councillor of the borough who shall sue for it. The council being assembled, in consequence of this notice, appoint a peremptory day for the election of a commissioner to go to the presiding borough of the district, to choose a burghers to serve in parliament. Two free days must intervene between the meeting of council, which appoints the diet for electing the commissioners, and the day on which such election is to be made. (16 Geo. II. c. 11. § 42.)

The first step at the election of the commissioner is, to produce and read the precept from the sheriff, after which the act of the 7th of Geo. II. c. 24. is likewise publicly read; the magistrates and councillors then qualify to government, by taking and subscribing the oath of abjuration, if put by any member of the meeting. An oath against bribery is then taken by the clerk, and by the electors. After these preparatory steps, the magistrates and councillors present at the meeting give their votes; and these votes being severally marked by the clerk, the minutes conclude by the council declaring the person in whose favour the majority stands to be their commissioner, and by their ordering the clerk to draw up
a com-

a commission to such person, and to sign it, and to affix to it the common seal of the borough. And the legislature has found it necessary to guard against abuses, on the part of clerks of royal boroughs, not only by oaths, but the terror of several severe penalties. It is not necessary that the commissioner be a resident, or a trafficking merchant within the borough, or that he be in possession of any burgage lands, or houses holding of it; nor need any such qualification be engrossed in the commission.

The commissioners from the several boroughs of the district meet together upon the thirtieth day after the *teste* of the writ, or on the day following, if it fall upon a Sunday, in the town-house of the presiding borough, betwixt eleven and twelve before noon; and, after production of the precepts from the sheriffs, and reading the act of the second of Geo. II., the commissioner from the presiding borough administers the oaths to government to the common clerk of that borough, who acts as clerk to the meeting, and makes the return to the sheriff. The clerk next takes an oath against bribery and for the faithful execution of his duty. The commissioners then produce their respective commissions, which are read; and if objections be made to any of them, or any protests are taken, these objections or protests ought regularly to be made part of the minutes. If any person to whom no commission has been granted, in the manner mentioned in the oath taken by the clerk, appear to insist that he was duly elected a commissioner from any borough of the district, he must be admitted to the meeting, and, upon his taking the oaths required by law, which the clerk is empowered to administer, and declaring for whom he would have voted, if he had got a commission properly authenticated, the clerk must insert such declaration in the minutes. This is ordered, that, in case of any unfair dealing in making out the commissions, it may be known in the House of Commons, in the event of a petition, for whom the commissioner appointed by the majority of the town council would have voted, had the clerk of the borough performed his duty, by making out, signing, and affixing the seal of the borough to a commission in his favour. But the clerk of the presiding borough, who is the returning officer, is not left at liberty to pay any regard to such declaration, how much reason soever he may have to be convinced that the person who makes it was freely chosen by the majority of the council, and that it was through the malversation of the clerk alone that he was prevented from producing a proper commission. His office is merely ministerial. He has no power to correct the abuses of others, or to judge what is right or wrong in their

their conduct. He must literally adhere to the dictates of the statutes, and is prohibited to admit the votes of any but those who produce commissions, authenticated by the subscriptions of the common clerks, and the common seals of boroughs within the district. He must return to the sheriff the person elected by the major part of the commissioners assembled, whose commissions are so authenticated; and if he neglect or refuse to return such person, or if he return any other person, he, for every such offence, forfeits 500*l.* sterling, to the candidate elected by the majority, and is also subjected to imprisonment for six calendar months, and ever after disabled to hold or enjoy his office of clerk of the presiding borough, as if he were naturally dead.

The commissioners from the several boroughs before proceeding to the election of a burgess to represent the district in parliament, must take the oaths to government, and likewise the oath of bribery introduced by the act of the second of Geo. II., if required, after which they give their votes, and the minutes being signed by the preses and the clerk, the meeting is thereupon dissolved.

The procedure subsequent to the meeting of the commissioners from the several boroughs of the district is similar to that which takes place in the election of representatives of shires. The clerk of the presiding borough returns the person elected by the majority of the commissioners, whose commissions are properly authenticated, to the sheriff within whose jurisdiction the borough is situated. That return must be annexed by the sheriff to the writ; and in the event of his neglecting, or refusing to do so, or of his annexing to the writ a return made by any other person, he, for every such offence, forfeits the sum of 500*l.* sterling, to the candidate returned by the clerk of the presiding borough, to be recovered by him or his executors, by summary complaint before the quarter session.

REMARKABLE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE PARLIAMENTS OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND. Although the Union has terminated the existence of the parliament of Scotland as a distinct body, yet an enumeration of some points in which their forms and proceedings differed from each other will be of use for the understanding of history, and tracing some customs and events.

FORM OF SITTING. Soon after the introduction of representatives from shires and boroughs, the English parliament was divided into two separate houses, the Lords and the Commons; but, in Scotland, the three estates met always in one house, had one common president, and deliberated jointly upon
all

all matters that came before them, whether of a judicial or of a legislative nature. It has, however, been doubted whether a bill could pass into a law, or a tax could be imposed, if any one of the three estates entered a dissent. This is by no means certain, but even although each of the three estates had been, in this respect, constitutionally independent on one another, and had enjoyed a negative, yet, by their meeting together in one assembly, the power and influence of the commons would naturally be kept under much longer in Scotland than in England, where they, at an early period, met in a separate house, and had their own speaker or president. In a country where there was little commerce or industry, and of course little wealth, exclusive of landed property, the burghesses, and even the small barons, would feel the humbleness of their situation, and be unfit to cope with high spirited nobles, and dignified churchmen, who were possessed of great estates and large revenues. We accordingly find, that, for a long time, few of the small barons gave themselves the trouble of attending, or even of sending commissioners to parliament. It was the religious disputes which took place at the Reformation, and during the long contest between the episcopal and presbyterian parties, and the zeal of the preachers, that first diffused the spirit of true liberty amongst the body of the people; but it was not till the Revolution that they met with that attention from government which the rights and privileges of free citizens demanded.

LORDS OF ARTICLES. The constitution of the Scottish parliament differed from that of the English in another material point. In the former, a committee was named at the commencement of each parliament to prepare matters, and to digest the bills that were to be brought in; and it came at last to be the general practice to lay no business before the parliament without its being previously considered in that committee. It is uncertain when this select committee, which was known by the name of *the Lords of the Articles*, was first brought in. That it was at least as ancient as the beginning of the reign of James I. seems to be evident from the title prefixed to the acts of that prince's first parliament, as it stands in the edition in Saxon character, commonly known by the name of the *Black Acts*, and published by authority of Queen Mary. What was the particular mode of electing this committee, or of what number it consisted in more ancient times, is not with certainty known; but, from the records, it should seem, that, during the reigns of at least the first three princes of the name of James, they were appointed, not by the king, but by the estates of parliament themselves; and it is also probable

bable that each estate would name those of its own body who were to be upon the committee. This might be a very harmless committee while it continued to be chosen by the different estates, and was not made to encroach or usurp upon the proceedings of the parliament itself. It was not, indeed, an unnatural institution in a country where, as is observed by Doctor Robertson, being too impatient to submit to the drudgery of civil business, and too impetuous to observe the forms or to enter into the details necessary in conducting it, made them glad to lay the burden upon a small number, while they themselves had no other labour than simply to give or refuse their sanction to the bills which were presented to them. 'Anciently (says Bishop Burnet) the parliament sat only two days, the first and the last. On the first they chose those who were to sit on the articles, eight for every state. These received all the heads of grievances or articles that were brought to them, and formed them into bills as they pleased; and, on the last day of the parliament, these were all read, and were approved of or rejected by the whole body. This was pretended to be done only for the shortening and dispatching of sessions.' This institution came, however, in process of time, to be a great engine in the hands of the crown. The idea being once introduced that nothing could be brought before parliament but through the medium of the lords of the articles, it was only necessary for the king, in order to his getting things managed according to his own wish, or to prevent a disagreeable motion from being made the subject of deliberation in parliament, to secure a majority in this preparatory committee; and that must have been a matter of little difficulty, considering the manner in which, at least in later times, it was named. History informs us, that as far back as 1560, the spiritual lords chose the temporal lords who were to be of this committee; that the temporal chose the spiritual; and that the burgesses chose their members themselves. This mode of electing the lords of the articles must have been favourable to the nation at this particular period, when the chief object was to get free of the tyranny and superstition of the church of Rome; but it opened a door for extending the influence of the crown, which was made still wider in after times. By the act 1587, cap. 37., it was appointed that an equal number of the lords of the articles, not under six nor above ten, should be chosen out of every estate; and, by the 114th act of the same year, it was farther ordered, that an equal number of the commissioners from shires should be upon this committee with the commissioners from boroughs. But neither of these acts tells us in what

what manner the members of this committee were to be chosen; whether each estate was to choose its own, or whether the plan that had been adopted in 1560 was to be followed. It is, however, pretty evident that James VI. did not think his influence in parliament sufficiently secured by the mode of election of the lords of the articles which then took place; for, in 1594, he obtained an act by which, under the pretence that inconveniences frequently arose in parliament by a multitude of doubtful and informal articles and supplications being presented, it was ordained that whenever a parliament should be proclaimed a convention should be appointed of four out of each estate, to meet twenty days before the parliament, in order to receive all articles and supplications concerning general laws or particular causes: that these articles and supplications should be delivered to the clerk register, who was appointed to present them to the convention for their consideration, in order that all things reasonable and necessary might be formally made and presented in a book to the lords of the articles at the meeting of parliament; and all impertinent, frivolous, and improper matters be rejected; and that no article or supplication wanting a special title, or not subscribed by the presenter, should be read or answered in the convention or following parliament; with power, however, to his majesty to present such articles as he might think good concerning himself or the common weal of the realm, at all times. It is remarkable that no provision was made in the act for the choice of this select body, which was to be intrusted with so extraordinary powers; and it is justly observed by an ingenious author, that this seeming defect was purely an artifice to secure the nomination to the king. They could not be named by parliament, because they were to meet twenty days before it was to sit; the choice, therefore, of course, was to devolve upon the crown. This attempt to give the king a negative before debate, and to restrain in so high a degree the active power of parliament, though masked under the artful pretence of preventing frivolous and impertinent matter, could not, after its real tendency came to be discovered, be submitted to by the nation without parting with their privileges altogether. It accordingly appears to have been soon dropped; and, in 1621, James fell upon a new device to gain an ascendant in parliament, by getting the lords of the articles named in a manner that could not fail of securing him a majority in that preparatory committee. The bishops generally devoted to the crown must have been particularly so at that period. It was therefore of little moment who should name the members of their estate that were to be upon the articles. It was of
more

more consequence to the king to be assured of getting men to his mind out of the other estates. For this end an ingenious device was contrived: the bishops, as formerly, named eight noblemen, and the noblemen eight bishops; and these sixteen having met together made choice of eight barons or commissioners from shires, and of eight burgeses; so that, in effect, the nomination of the whole devolved upon the bishops, on whom the king could rely with confidence. This committee was abolished during the reign of Charles the First, and during the usurpation; it was restored in its full splendour at the Restoration, but the Revolution definitively destroyed it. Although this committee is considered as a distinguishing feature in the parliament of Scotland, yet something similar to it is found in the parliament of England in early times. The great barons delighting to reside at their castles in the country, and having little taste for tedious political investigations, the sessions of parliament were for some time very short in England as well as in Scotland. In order, therefore, to get the necessary business quickly dispatched, the laws which the king wished to be enacted were drawn up by the council or by the judges in the form of statutes, and after being read in parliament, were at once either passed or rejected. Certain persons were also appointed by the king some time before the meeting of a parliament, to receive and try such petitions as were to be presented from the several parts of the kingdom. And, on the first day of the parliament, proclamation was made at the door of the house, and at other public places, that all persons who had any petitions to present should give them in to those who had been appointed to receive them.

SUPPLIES. Another difference between the parliaments of the two kingdoms, worthy of remark, is, that in England the granting general subsidies or aids to the crown was at least for some centuries before the Union in a manner committed solely to the Commons; whereas, in Scotland, all the three estates went hand in hand in that as well as in other matters. It is true that in England every money bill required the concurrence of the Lords as well as the Commons; but no such bill could originate in the House of Lords; and, although they might refuse to concur, they had no power to make any alterations or amendments. It may therefore with propriety be said, that, in England the Commons had the sole power of imposing taxes, but for many obvious reasons derived from the state of property, the form of legislative sitting and other causes, this could not be the case in Scotland.

CONVENTIONS. It is likewise to be observed, that, besides regular parliaments, the kings of Scotland were wont, upon particular

particular emergencies which required immediate deliberation and execution, such as a sudden invasion or the necessity of raising a sum of money to answer a sudden exigency, to call what were termed *Conventions of the Estates*. On such occasions there was no necessity for any formal citation of all those who had a right to sit in parliament: the king called any number that could be speedily drawn together, and their powers were limited to that particular business for which they were called. The famous assembly which in 1689 declared that James VII. of Scotland had forfeited his right to the crown, and settled it upon William and Mary, was denominated a meeting of the estates. It consisted of the last parliament of James, and was called by circular letters from the Prince of Orange, under his hand and seal. The Duke of Hamilton was chosen president; and a letter having been presented to them from King James, they, before opening it, declared and enacted, ‘That notwithstanding of any thing that may be contained in that letter
 ‘for dissolving them, or impeding their procedure, yet that
 ‘they are a free and lawful meeting of the estates, and will
 ‘continue undissolved until they settle and secure the Protestant religion, the government, laws, and liberties of the
 ‘kingdom.’ This declaration was subscribed by seven bishops, 42 peers, 50 barons, and the like number of burghesses.

PARLIAMENT HOUSE. The parliament house was begun in 1631, and completed in 1640; it is built in the shape of the letter L; 133 feet long by 98 broad in the widest end, and 60 in the narrowest; and from the singularity of the area on which it is reared, although the buildings are 60 feet high, yet, upon the north and east sides, which are the main fronts, it is but about 40 feet above the ground. The great hall is 122 feet long by 49 broad. Over one of its entrances, facing the east are the arms of Scotland well cut on stone, with Mercy and Truth for supporters; with the inscription, *Stant his felicia regna*; and under the arms, *Unio Unionum*, relating not only to the two crowns, but signifying that their influence was necessary to the maintenance of it. The room where parliament met had a high throne for the sovereign or royal commissioner, with benches on each side for the nobility and bishops, and forms conveniently placed in the middle for the commoners. Without the area was a pulpit for sermons on particular occasions, behind which was a large partition for others, besides the members, to hear the sermons and debates. The house is now used for the sittings of the Courts of Session and of Justiciary.

OFFICERS

OFFICERS OF STATE.

LORD KEEPER OF THE GREAT SEAL. Before the Union, Scotland had a lord chancellor, whose office was analogous to that of the lord chancellor of England. He was the chief in matters of justice; and in the laws of Malcolm II. he is placed before all other officers; and from these it appears, that he had the principal direction of the chancery, or chancellery. He had the custody of the king's seal, and was the king's most intimate counsellor. James VI. ordained that the chancellor should have the first place and rank in the nation, *ratione officii*, by virtue whereof he presided in the parliament; and in all courts of judicature. The office of lord chancellor was abolished by the Union, there being no farther use for the judicial part; and to answer all the other parts a lord keeper of the great seal was appointed, with a salary of 3000*l.* a year.

Under the lord keeper are a *deputy keeper* and *king's writer*, and two *ushers*.

LORD KEEPER OF THE PRIVY SEAL. This office was established by James I. on his return from captivity in England, for the ease of the lord chancellor, and in imitation of what he had seen established at the court of England. This office was not abolished at the Union; the salary is 3000*l.* a year; the *deputy* has 400*l.* a year, and there are two *writers*.

KEEPER OF THE SIGNET. This office is equal in emolument to those mentioned above, the salary being 3000*l.* and the keeper having a *deputy* and *sub keeper*.

LORD SECRETARY. This office in Scotland was nearly the same with that of the great prothonotary, which agreed with the *Primicerius Notarium* amongst the Romans; these were of the prince's council, and acted therein as his secretaries. The lord secretary was constantly to attend the king's person, receive all petitions and memorials, and write the king's answers upon them. All letters patent passed through his hand, and were drawn up by him; and all the king's letters, dispatches, warrants, orders, &c. were written out, and generally subscribed by him. He was answerable, if they contained any thing contrary to the laws of the land, or derogatory to the king's honour and dignity. The lord secretary took precedence of all of his rank; and whatever his qualities were, he took place of the four lesser officers of state. This office was kept up after the Union, but since the year 1746, there has been no secretary of state for Scotland.

LORD REGISTER. The lord clerk register was of old the principal clerk in the kingdom, from whom all other clerks, who were his deputies, derived their immediate authority, and he himself acted as clerk to the parliament and council. He was called *clericus rotulorum*, because, of old, the proceedings of parliament, and minutes and judgments of other courts, were engrossed on rolls of parchment; hence they were called *rotuli parliamenti*; but afterward they were ordered to be written in books, and the respective clerks ordained to transmit these books to the clerk register, to be preserved by him in the public archives or register; whence came the name of *custos rotulorum*, by which he is often called in history. By the treaty of Union, the preservation of the registers in the same manner is particularly provided for; and the return of the election of the sixteen Scots peers to the British parliament, is ordered to be made by the clerk register, or by two of the clerks of Session deputed by him for that purpose.

The office was formerly during pleasure, but in 1777 it was granted for life. The salary is 1200*l.* and the register has six deputies, and two deputy keepers of the records.

LORD HIGH CONSTABLE. This was an officer of great antiquity and dignity. He has two grand prerogatives; first, the keeping of the king's sword, which the king, at his promotion, when he swears fealty, delivers to him naked; hence the badge of the constable is a naked sword. Second, the absolute and unlimited command of the king's armies while in the field, in the absence of the king: but this command does not extend to castles and garrisons. He was likewise judge of all crimes committed within two leagues of the king's house, which precinct was called the *Chalmer of Peace*. The jurisdiction of this office came at last to be exercised only as to crimes during the time of parliament, which some extended likewise to all general conventions. This office has been but in few families: The Morvils enjoyed it under David I. and his grand children Malcolm and William. By them it came by descent to the Lords of Galloway; and from them in the same manner to John Baliol. By Robert Bruce it was bestowed on Sir Gilbert Hay of Errol, whose hereditary successor was Charles Earl of Errol, high constable of Scotland at the time of the Union.

All these offices are still in being, or have been retained since the Union, but those which follow were by that compact rendered useless, and abolished altogether.

THE LORD HIGH TREASURER. This office was established in Scotland on the return of James I. from captivity. The king's revenue being intirely in the management of the treasurer, his business was to examine and pass the accounts of the

sheriffs, and others concerned in levying it; to receive resignations of lands, and hereditaments in use to be resigned into the king's hands, and to revise, compound, and pass signatures, gifts, tutory, &c., all which is now committed to the court of exchequer in Scotland. In 1617 the treasurer was ranked by James VI. as the first officer of state, and in 1623, when he determined the precedence of his counsellors, he was placed next to the chancellor; in 1663 he was declared president of the exchequer. The office of *comptroller*, which was sometimes joined with that of treasurer, and designated *computorum rotulator*, and that of *collector* of the new augmentations, which were both distinct offices from that of the treasurer, were all conjoined into one by James VI. and exercised by the treasurer till 1685, when the treasury was put in commission.

THE LORD TREASURER DEPUTE. The commission of this officer ran in the same terms with that given to the treasurer principal, or the commissioners of treasury: his office was chiefly to be a check upon them; and in absence of the treasurer and lord chancellor, he claimed to be president of the exchequer.

COMPTROLLER. The duties of this officer resembled those of the treasurer of the household in England: he was an officer of state, till the order of parliament restraining the number to eight besides the chancellor, whereof the master of requests was one, now confounded with the secretary; and so the treasurer came into the place of the comptroller.

LORD PRESIDENT. Under this head, it is fit to notice the constitution and power of the privy council of Scotland. The privy council was looked upon as the spring of the government; for all proclamations for calling parliaments and conventions of the states, and for the more effectual execution of the laws and preserving the peace and tranquillity of the kingdom, were issued by the king with the advice of this council, and in it the management of all state affairs was lodged. This council was constituted by commission from the king under the great seal, and he could remove or add to the number by a letter under his sign manual. The great officers of state were members by virtue of their office: and if neither the lord chancellor nor lord president was present, the members (whereof nine made a quorum) elected a *preses*, *pro tempore*, or *pro hac vice*. This court had its own signet and seal, two principal clerks, macers, and other officers; it formerly had power to judge in matters of *right*; but it was afterwards restrained to matters of *fact*. However, its great work consisted in taking care of the peace and welfare of the kingdom; in suppressing rebellions; in punishing tumults and notorious breaches of the peace; in

raising the militia; granting commissions, office, and sword; and in case of rebellion, in granting commissions of lieutenancy and justiciary, and in ordering the advancing of money out of the treasury required in such emergencies. It could mitigate and alter inferior punishments, adjourn the sessions or any other court, and assign the times and places where they should sit; raised or lowered the value of money; imposed fines or tolls at bridges and ferries; it could sequester pupils and allow them alimony, and allow a separate maintenance to wives ill treated by their husbands. It ordered noblemen as well as others, who absconded or evaded captions for debt, to deliver themselves up to one of the king's castles under pain of treason. The explication of acts of parliament, and the prescribed methods for putting them in execution (not otherwise provided for in the statutes), was usually remitted by the king to the privy council. All their proclamations, and acts, and orders founded upon law, were binding on the subject; and when the public safety required it, the king and privy council might use a latitude of power suitable to the occasion for speedy redress. And as the power, honour, and burthen of the office of a privy counsellor were great; so it was death by law to invade or pursue them for doing the king's service. This court was abolished at the Union, but the office of lord president is still retained. In antient times, he took place next to the chancellor and had a pension: under him were the collector general, director of the chancery, and the director of the rolls.

LORD HIGH ADMIRAL. Although the Scots never relied in any great degree on their navy, their high admiral had extensive powers. He commanded the king's ships and sailors, and had the inspection of all the sea-ports, harbours, and sea-coasts in the kingdom; and he had a particular tribunal, where the judges appointed by him decided all causes relating to sea affairs, and that according to a particular code of naval law. His powers likewise extended to the cognizance of all crimes committed upon the sea, or in the ports and creeks thereof, or in fresh waters and navigable rivers, so far as the sea flows and ebbs. This he executed by an officer commissioned by him, and called the deputy judge admiral, who likewise judged in matters purely commercial, as arising from the sea. Adam Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, was made hereditary lord admiral of Scotland; and, upon his forfeiture it was conferred in like manner on Francis Stewart, Earl of Bothwell; but he being also forfeited, James VI. granted it to his cousin, the Duke of Lenox and Richmond. The male line of this family becoming extinct in 1672, Charles II. gave it to his natural son, whom he

he created Duke of Lenox and Richmond; but he resigned it into the hands of the crown in 1703. Since the treaty of Union, only a vice admiral has been appointed, and that only to act as a judge in civil affairs relating to naval and commercial concerns in Scotland.

LORD CHAMBERLAIN. The great chamberlain of Scotland was ranked by King Malcolm as the third great officer of the crown, and was called *camerarius domini regis*. Before a treasurer was appointed, it was his duty to collect the revenue of the crown, and he disbursed the money for the maintenance of the king's household. From the time that a treasurer was appointed, his province was limited to the boroughs throughout the kingdom, where he was a sort of justice general, as he had a power of judging in all crimes committed within the borough, and of the crime of forestalling. He was to hold chamberlain-ayres every year. He was supreme judge, nor could any of his decrees be questioned by any inferior judicatory. His sentences were put in execution by the magistrates of the boroughs. He also regulated the price of provisions within the borough, and the fees of the workmen in the mint house. The smallness of his salary, which was only 200*l.*, and his great powers, had no doubt been the causes of much oppression in this office, so that the chamberlain-ayre was called rather a legal robbery than a court of justice; and when the combined lords seized James VI. Aug. 24. 1582, and carried him to Ruthven castle, they issued a proclamation in the king's name, discharging the chamberlain-ayres, then to be kept. The chamberlain had great fees arising from the profits of escheats, fines, tolls and customs. This office was granted heritably to the family of Stewart, Duke of Lenox; and when their male line failed, Charles II. conferred it in like manner on his natural son, the Duke of Monmouth; and on his forfeiture, it went to the Duke of Lenox; but that family surrendered it to the crown in 1703.

EARL MARISCHAL. Marischal is supposed to be a German word, meaning a maker of camps; and the axe, which he bears as the badge of his office, was the instrument with which he broke ground, though this part of his office came to be delegated to *Marischal du Camp*. This officer took no place by virtue of his office, but according to his precedency in the degrees of nobility. He commanded the cavalry, whereas the constable commanded the whole army. They seem to have had a sort of joint command, as of old all orders were addressed "To our Constable and Marischal." The office of earl marischal has never been out of the noble family of Keith. It was reserved at the Union; and when the heritable jurisdic-

dictions were bought, it was in the crown, being forfeited by the rebellion of George Keith, Earl Marischal, in 1715.

MASTER OF THE HORSE. This was in ancient times an officer of the king, but became discontinued when the union of the crowns sent the sovereign to reside in London.

GENTRY.

Under this head will be considered the different orders of the laity, who rank below the nobility.

KNIGHTS OF THE THISTLE. An account of this order is given in vol. i. p. 456.

BARONETS. The order of baronet in Scotland was first erected for advancing the plantation of Nova Scotia in America, and for settling a colony there, to which the aid obtained from these knights was appropriated: this order was designed by James VI. before his death, but not actually founded till 1625, when Charles I. disposed to each of these knights a certain portion of land in Nova Scotia; and for their further encouragement, ordained that heretable state and stile of baronet, to be enjoyed by every of these gentlemen who hazarded their lives for the good and increase of that plantation, and their heirs male for ever, with priority and precedency before all knights called *equites aurati*, all lesser barons, commonly called lairds, and before all other gentlemen (except Sir William Alexander, his majesty's lieutenant of Nova Scotia, and his heirs, their wives and children), and that to the christian name of these knights should be added the title sir; and his sons' wives should enjoy the title and appellation of lady, madam, and dame respectively, according to the usual phrase in speaking and writing; the king promising that the number of baronets in Scotland should not exceed 150, and that he would not create any other dignity or order superior to it. Further to adorn this order, they were allowed to wear and carry about their necks, an orange tawney silk ribbon, whereon was to hang pendant in a scutcheon, *argent*, a *saltire*, *azure*, and thereon an inescutcheon of the arms of Scotland, with an imperial crown above the scutcheon, and incircled with this motto, *Pax mentis honestæ gloria*; all which grants are registered in the books of *Lion king of arms*, and the heralds, there to remain *ad futuram rei memoriam*. But after the selling of Nova Scotia to the French, this order became an honourable title in Scotland, conferred at the king's pleasure without limitation of number. From the cause of their creation, they are not unfrequently called *Nova Scotia Baronets*.

Knights

Knights Banneret, Knights and Esquires in Scotland had the same signification and rank as in England: *Laird* was a peculiar and undefined title, generally allowed by courtesy to the possessors of land who were not intitled to any rank among the nobility, or the established orders. It cannot be deemed wonderful that such a distinction should be given in a country where so many can boast of illustrious blood, and where, even to this day, it is usual in familiar speech to call the possessor of land by the name of his estate.

HERALD'S OFFICE. There has been from ancient times a college of arms, designed to give coats of armour and other ensigns of honour to such as had done signal services to their king and country; to prevent the assuming of arms by such as have no titles to them; and to take care of proper distinctions between the arms of the chiefs of families, and their cadets. The chief of this office is styled, *Lord Lion, King at arms*, because the lion is the royal bearing of Scotland, and he is created by patent under the great seal. He attended formerly on the parliament, assisted on coronations, and still walks or rides in processions and cavalcades: he is at all solemn proclamations, and wears on those occasions a rich coat of arms, and sometimes a long crimson robe; and at coronations he wore a gilt crown. He has a rich foot mantle, and suitable horse ornaments at cavalcades, and *batroon semée of thistles*: he is principal herald of the order of St. Andrew, or the Thistle, and wears the order in gold about his neck, hanging down on his breast. He has power to give and difference arms; admits all the heralds, pursuivants, and messengers at arms; and of old, admitted both macers and trumpets. He holds two solemn head-courts in the year, on the 6th of May, and the 6th of November, and at other times as often as he has occasion to call one, when all messengers are obliged to appear before him. He attests all genealogies under his hand and seal, which bear faith abroad as well as at home. He and the other heralds and pursuivants, according to their respective stations, denounce war, and proclaim peace, command the subjects to lay down their arms, make citations in actions of treason, and do all things proper to the office of an herald here, or in any other kingdom; besides which, *Lion* and his *brethren* enjoy many other privileges, honours, dignities, and immunities. The salary of *Lion* is 600*l.*, and he has a *clerk* and *keeper of the records*.

There are six heralds, *Albany, Rothesay, Snadown, Marchmount, Yla, and Ross*. Salaries 25*l.* each.

There are also six pursuivants, *Unicorn, Kintire, Bute, Dingwall, Ormond, and Carrick*. Salaries 16*l.* each.

The heralds and pursuivants take place according to their patents.

There are also *six trumpets*, called the *king's ordinary trumpets*, who are obliged to attend upon the orders of the herald's office.

THE CHURCH.

The similitude of the superstitions which prevailed on the neighbouring continent and in the British islands, is emphatically mentioned by Julius Cæsar, as a strong proof of the common origin of the Gaulish people of both. The Druidism of the ancient Britons obviously derived its source from the practices of the most early times. The barbarous sacrifices of human victims, however, were too general in the first ages to be peculiar to the British priests. The most usual objects of their worship were woods and waters, fires and rocks. The same natural objects were equally the gods of their idolatry in North Britain, as they had been in the most southern districts of our island.

The priests and the people equally assembled in the sacred groves, and within the circles of stones, to perform their unhallowed rites. The stone monuments which still remain in North Britain, are indubitable proofs of the similitude of the worship which was practised there, as well as in South Britain. Within the Pictish territories, there long remained the sacred groves and stone circles, the areas whereof the superstitious vulgar called holy ground, which they refused to apply to any civil use. Some of the first Christians converted those sacred inclosures into chapels. As the Scotch-Irish, who came in upon the Picts after the year 843, had long become Christians, none of those Druid monuments can be attributed to their unsullied hands. The era of Christianity and the epoch of the declension of Druidism may be considered as the same. Augustus proscribed the Druid rites to the Roman citizens; Tiberius enforced the prohibition of his predecessor; and Claudius abolished the religion of the Druids, within the ample extent of Gaul, during the year 43. As the Romans extended their conquests in Britain, the practices of the Druids were either proscribed by power, or disused by neglect; yet, in Wales, in Ireland, and in Caledonia, Druidism continued to maintain its influence, till the lights of Christianity penetrated into their darkest recesses.

The

The religion of Christ gained upon the world, in defiance of persecution, during three centuries of adversity. With the accession of Constantine, in 306, it may be said to have been established, within the Roman empire, though not with all the temporal rights which it afterwards acquired. In Britain, it appears to have very soon assumed the same form of policy, as it had naturally acquired within the other districts of the Roman state, and, as early as the year 314, three bishops actually appeared from Britain at the council of Arles, the representatives of three dioceses, which were probably commensurate with three of the Roman provinces in this island.

Yet is there reason to believe, that the benign influence of Christianity had been felt in those parts of North Britain, which were inaccessible to the Roman power, as soon as the beginning of the third century. The Romanized Britons of Valentia, who are called the Southern Picts by Bede and the contemporary writers of the middle ages, were converted from their ancient superstitions, at the commencement of the fifth century. This reformation they owed to Ninian, who was born, about the year 360, of noble parentage, in the country of the Novantes, near the *Leucophibia* of Ptolomy. He founded a monastery at Whithern, which supplied the country with successive teachers, and erected a church, which is emphatically mentioned by Bede as the first that was built of stone; and as having from this circumstance obtained the appropriate name of *Candida Casa*.

During the first ages of Christianity, before the Christian votaries had yet been formed into a regular church, which could afford protection to its pastors, their most early teachers were obliged to seek shelter in caves, from the heady rudeness of half informed followers. We may thus trace to its origin the cause why so many of the names of parishes, in North Britain and Ireland, have in them the prefix Kil, from the British *Gil*, a *retreat*, a refuge, and the Irish *Kil*; signifying, secondarily, a church.

Ireland, which was destined to furnish religious instructors to the Caledonian regions, was herself converted by British missionaries, as early as 432. And the Irish colonists, who were conducted to Kintire by Fergus in 503, were thus enabled to bring Christianity with them, and to interweave it with their polity. The ecclesiastical patron of the Irish emigrants was Ciaran, a prelate of great fame, to whose name several churches in Argyle and Ayrshire were dedicated; but the Irish colonists seem to have been too much occupied with their own temporal affairs, to allow them leisure for making converts beyond the narrow extent of their little kingdom.

kingdom. The converting of the northern Picts was reserved for a greater personage. As he came, not to destroy, but to save; and not to conquer, but to civilize, Columba will always be remembered as the disinterested benefactor of North Britain. Born of a family of the highest rank in Ireland, the cousin of Scoto-Irish kings, Columba early dedicated his life to religion during a religious period: and being involved in the troubles of a tumultuous people, he departed from Ireland for the colony of his kindred, in 563, at the age of forty-two, after founding several monasteries in his native land.

Columba was deeply tinctured with the spirit of monkism, which in his times was widely spread in Europe. For the site of the monastery, which was designed by him to be the school of the Caledonian people, he cast his eyes on a solitary isle lying in the Scottish sea, near the south-west angle of Mull, and settled in Hy with his twelve disciples. They now neither sought nor loved any thing of this world, as Bede relates. They laboured two years with their own hands in erecting huts, and building a church of very flight materials. The Columbans, though they were called *monks*, were a body of regular clergy, except those who were chiefly employed in corporal labour, and those who were consigned to public penance. They lived under the strict discipline which Columba had established as the rule of his monasteries. After thus forming his establishment, Columba undertook the difficult enterprize of converting a people, those Picts who dwelt northward of Drum Albin. The power of prophecy, the gift of miracles, which were arrogated by Columba, and are related by his biographers, are proofs of the ignorance and simplicity of the age. The Picts consisted of clans who had advanced little from a savage state, and who were governed by Bridei, the son of Mailcon, a prince of great influence, but of little civilization. The patience and perseverance of Columba converted the king; and the prince, by his persuasion and authority, converted the people. Columba and his disciples now journeyed for the useful end of instruction through every part of the Pictish territories, and even penetrated into the Orkney isles: they at length established monasteries within every district of the Caledonian country, while parishes did not yet exist, with the design of sending out a succession of adequate instructors for an uninformed people.

Columba during four and thirty years of active benevolence continued to send out his pastors to inform the ignorant, to superintend the cells which his policy had established, and to compose

compose the hasty disputes of rugged chieftains. The contemporary princes often felt the influence of his councils, sometimes profited from the interposition of his authority, and, at length, carried their veneration so far as to attend him to receive the ceremony of coronation from his hands. Columba died on the 9th of June, 597, leaving his monastery firmly settled, a people converted by his labours from paganism to Christianity, and a name for the celebration of every age.

The Christian religion, being thus established, was exercised according to the forms of the church of Rome; but the church of Scotland owned no superior: it was in vain attempted to bring it within the jurisdiction of the archbishop of York; all such endeavours were effectually resisted, the church being firmly maintained in its independence, as the daughter, *nullo mediante*, of that of Rome.

CULDEES. One of their establishments, which, although it does not appear to have been peculiar to Scotland, is most celebrated there, was that of the Culdees, of whom the following account is given by Mr. Chalmers.

“ The secular clergy seldom or never appear in the Scottish history; during the Scottish period, the bishops, indeed, and the abbots appeared very conspicuous, and the Culdees we shall discover in their cells, though their origin be extremely obscure: they were neither mentioned by Bede, nor known to Nannius, nor acknowledged by Adamnan: yet were not the Culdees peculiar to North Britain: they were equally recognized by the same name in the ecclesiastical systems of Ireland, of Wales, and of England. The Culdees were undoubtedly monks in all those countries, as the name implies, though they acquired their distinguished appellation at different epochs in those several nations*. In the united kingdom of the Picts and Scots, the name seems to have been unknown, if we may determine from the silence of Bede, of Nennius, and Adamnan, till the establishment of a monastery at St. Andrews; and here were they first distinguished by the significant name of *Culdees*. They were obviously an order of Celtic monks, who performed the functions of secular priests among the Celtic people under a Celtic government; as the faith and discipline of the church

* Their name was probably derived from the notion of their retreat and seclusion. In the Welsh, *cêl*, which means shelter, a *hiding*, would form the name, in the plural, thus: *celydi*, *celydiaud*, *celydion*, *celydrys*. In the Gaelic, *culdee* signifies a monk, a hermit; the name of *cuildeach* is commonly given at this day, says the learned and reverend Dugal Campbell, of the Isle of Mull, to persons who are not fond of society. Stat. Account, v. xiv. p. 200. In the Gaelic, also, *ceile* signifies a servant: hence, *ceile de*, the servant of God; *de* being the genitive of *dia*, God. See O'Brien's Dict. in vo. The topography of North Britain does not throw any light on the obscure name of the Culdees; as there does not appear to be any appellation, in the maps of Scotland, which bears the least analogy to the Culdean monks.

had come down to them from Constantin and Kellach. Of Culdees, there existed in North Britain during the Scottish period, religious houses at Abernethy, Dunkeld, St. Andrews, Dunblane, Brechin, Mortlach, Aberdon, Monymusk, Loch-Leven, Portmoak, Dumfermlin, Scone, and at Kirkcaldie. This form of a religious establishment seems to have existed among the Picts and Scots, even from the age and example of Columba. During the Pictish period, there was endowed at *Abernethy* a religious house, which was dedicated to Brigid. Here it long flourished in usefulness, under the patronage of the Scottish kings. And here the Culdees continued till they were suppressed in the thirteenth century, after religious novelty had removed many ancient foundations. 2. *Dunkeld* owed the erection of a religious house to the pious gratitude of Kenneth, the son of Alpin. It immediately assumed the form which was known and practised, within the united kingdom, during that age. The house was filled with Culdees, who were governed by an abbot; and, with them, resided a bishop, who performed independently the functions of his office. The abbots of Dunkeld for many ages acted a conspicuous part, in the bloody scenes of the Scottish government. And the monastery, with the Culdees and their abbot, continued amidst many reforms till the maiden reign of Malcolm IV. 3. At *St. Andrews* a religious house with its usual concomitants existed, when the union of the Scots and Picts took place. The abbots here were also distinct; and they had the honour to enumerate several kings in their list. Here the Culdees maintained their purity and usefulness for many an age. A priory was founded at this ancient seat by Alexander I. And canons regular were introduced here, in 1140, by Robert the Bishop of Saint Andrews. 4. At *Brechin* a religious house was settled as early as 994. The Culdees of the monastery of Brechin continued for many ages to act as the dean and chapter of this episcopate, and they seem not to have been reformed, by the introduction of the canons regular, till the accession of Robert Bruce. 5. The religious house at *Dunblane* is of very ancient foundation. The Culdees and their prior retained possession, and here performed their functions, during several ages of reform. They were superseded, however, by canons regular, sometime before the middle of the thirteenth century. 6. A religious house, which was dedicated to *St. Servan*, was erected in the earliest times on an islet in Loch-Leven. Successive kings, Macbeth, Malcolm III, and Edgar, and his brother Ethelred, with the bishops Maldevin and MODOCH, were all studious to endow the Culdees of Loch-Leven. Here they performed their usual functions, till the reforming hand of David

David I. fell upon them. To the priory of St. Andrews, this pious prince gave the monastery of St. Servan, with the island of Loch-Leven; and with an intimation, that if the Culdees would live peaceably, they should be protected; but if they should resist the royal grant, they would be expelled the holy isle of Servan. The Culdees were expelled; though it is not easy to ascertain the time and circumstances of that event, which arose from the violence of the canons, and the connivance of the bishop, who usually supported the canons against the Culdees. 7. *Portmoak*, on the eastern margin of Loch-Leven and the northern efflux of the Leven river, was founded during the ninth century by Ungus, the Pictish king, a religious house. Here the Culdees under the usual rule of their abbot performed their accustomed functions for many a savage reign. They were reformed during the general reformation of the worthy David. They too became the prey of the prior and canons of Saint Andrews, though the time and circumstances of the depredation cannot now be ascertained. 8. The splendid abbey of *Dumfermlin* owed its inconsiderable foundation to Malcolm Ceanmore; its completion to Alexander I.; and its reform to David I. The monastery of Dumfermlin was dedicated, like the other Culdean establishments, to the Holy Trinity. Here the Culdees, with their abbot, discharged their usual duties during several reigns: and David I. who lived much with Henry I. of England, upon his accession introduced among the Celtic Culdees thirteen English monks from Canterbury. 9. We may easily suppose, that when the *fatal stone* was transferred by Kenneth, the son of Alpin, from Argyle to *Scone*, a religious house would be established at this ancient metropolis. A Culdean church was here dedicated in the earliest times, to the Holy Trinity, like other Culdean monasteries. The Culdees were at length reformed, in 1115, by Alexander I.; who dismissed the Culdean churchmen, and committed the custody of the church of Scone to canons regular of Saint Augustine, with a prior at their head. 10. At *Monymusk*, in Aberdeenshire, was also in ancient times an establishment of Culdees. Here, with their prior, they performed their usual functions for many ages without complaint. The superintendance of this house was transferred by David I., while he panted for reform, to the bishops of Saint Andrews. The several pretensions of the dependants and superior soon produced controversies. These disputes were settled, by a reference from Innocent III., in 1212, which gave them a new constitution, yet did the Bishop of St. Andrews, in opposition to a solemn promise, suppress those Culdees, and place canons regular in their room at Monymusk, which became thenceforth

a cell of the priory of St. Andrews. 11. In addition to all those Culdean houses, there appears to have been an establishment of the Culdees, at *Kirkcaldie*, in Fife; whence the place was named Kil-eledei, which was changed during the Scoto-Saxon period, to Kirkcaledie.

“ Such then were the originals, the nature, and the end of the Culdees in North Britain. Yet system has concurred with ignorance, in supposing that the Culdees were peculiar to the united kingdom of the Picts and Scots, and actually possessed rights and exercised powers which were inconsistent with the established laws of the universal church in that age. A retrospective view of ecclesiastical history, from the epoch of the introduction of Christianity into North Britain, would show to a discerning eye, that the doctrines, liturgical forms, and monkish discipline of the Britons, the Irish, the Scots, and the Picts, were extremely similar; as all those people were indeed congenerous.”

ESTABLISHMENT. During the prevalence of the Roman Catholic religion, Scotland had two archbishops and twelve bishops; nine convents of Benedictine monks; two convents of Cluniac monks; fourteen convents of Cistercian monks: four convents of reformed Cistercians, called the Valley of Reeds; nineteen convents of Austin friars; five convents of premonstratensian monks; three convents of reformed Augustinians, distinguished by the name of *Ordinis Tironensis*, or *Turonensis*; one convent of Carthusians; twenty-three convents of Dominicans, or friars preachers; fourteen convents of Franciscan friars; seven convents of Carmelite friars; seven convents of Trinitarians for the redemption of captives; ten convents more of different orders not described in history; and twenty six houses called colleges of secular priests or canons. To these may be added one house of knights templars, which was the hospital of St. Germain in Lothian, dissolved in 1494.

REFORMATION. The progress of the reformation in England was attended with similar efforts in Scotland. The Romish clergy by their scandalous lives and gross impostures drew indignation and ruin on their own heads, and their extensive possessions, by exciting the cupidity of the great and the powerful, deprived the church of its natural protectors. The sovereigns of Scotland indeed exerted their influence in favour of the establishment; but the ambition of England, the covetousness of those who hoped to enrich themselves by the spoils of the church, the fury of the populace, and above all the badness of the cause, concurred to effect the overthrow of a degrading and superstitious form of worship.

The

The reformation was, however, principally effected through the means of the celebrated John Knox, who returned in 1555 from Geneva, where he had been educated. He preached in private to the friends of the reformation, and expatiated with vehemence against the impiety of those temporizing measures which the power of the clergy had hitherto induced men to adopt. He himself, however, was speedily under the necessity of flying from the kingdom; but this did not prevent the progress of the new opinions. The dangerous weapons of wit and ridicule, for which the pageantry of the Romish church and the licentious lives of its clergy during that age, afforded ample scope, were employed with success against it; so that the populace were inspired with such contempt for what they formerly accounted most sacred, that they wantonly defaced the images of the Virgin Mary, the Trinity, and Saint Francis, in St. Giles's church. On this account, in 1556, Mary of Lorraine, queen dowager and regent of the kingdom, wrote from Aberdeen a violent letter, requiring the provost, bailies, and council of Edinburgh, to discover the authors of certain odious ballads and rhymes lately published, together with the destroyers of the sacred images. Affairs, however, were now in such a state, that the current of opposition could not be resisted. In 1558, the clergy made great preparations as usual for celebrating on the first of September the anniversary of Saint Giles, the patron of Edinburgh. As they were not without apprehensions that the new converts might disturb the processions, they intreated the queen-regent to honour the solemnity with her presence, which they imagined might overawe the populace: this was agreed to. When the day came, and every thing was in readiness for the procession, the clergy, both secular and regular, repaired in great state to the shrine, to bring forth the saint's statue, when it was discovered that some of the reformers, during the preceding night, had stolen the image; and it was even said that they had cast it into the North Loch. This occasioned considerable confusion; but a small image was borrowed from the grey friars, which the reformers among the mob called in derision *Young St. Giles*. The procession being attended by the queen-regent and a multitude of priests and monks, with music, was conducted peaceably till towards the close; when the queen having withdrawn, the mob dismounted the image, and attacked the attendants. Then, according to John Knox, "Dagon was left without head or hands; down goes the cross; off go the surplices, round caps and cornets, with the crowns; the grey friars gaped; the black friars blew; the priests panted and fled; and happy was he that got first to the house; for such a sudden fray came

“ came never among the generation of antichrist within this “ realm before.” Affairs were now approaching fast to a crisis. The reforming preachers appear to have understood well the nature of the Roman Catholic religion, and the source of its influence over the human mind; they attacked therefore all those sensible objects, and all that apparatus of magnificent temples, statues, relics, music, robes, processions, and splendid ceremonies, by which it imposed upon the imaginations of men. The profelytes of the religious reformers having increased in number, they assumed the name of the *congregation*, and entered into an agreement for their mutual support in propagating their tenets, in demolishing the buildings, and interrupting the solemnities, by which the catholic priesthood had hitherto supported their power. Their chiefs were styled the *Lords of the Congregation*; and becoming confident in their own strength, they advanced in arms towards Edinburgh, where the queen-regent found it necessary to come to an agreement with them; by which each party consented, that the separate religions should be exercised unmolested till a day fixed on. At the same time the magistrates of Edinburgh prevailed with the lords of the congregation to spare their churches, to be employed in the protestant worship; and, in order to prevent the populace of the country from tumultuously entering the city, the gates were shut, excepting the Netherbow and the West-port, which were strongly guarded.

In this manner was the contest conducted, the efforts of the people on the one hand being such as for a less cause might have been termed seditious or even rebellious, and the resistance to it involving appeals to foreign aid, the horrors of civil war, and the miseries attendant on various factions under leaders swayed by their several passions and interests.

The inclination of the people, who were for the most part followers of Knox, was for that form of religion which is generally termed presbyterian. After the abolition of the Romish church, a strong though unpopular effort was made to continue the episcopacy on a plan approaching to that of the church of England. For this purpose Scotland continued to be divided into the archbishopricks of Saint Andrew's and Glasgow; and the twelve bishopricks of Aberdeen, Argyle, Brechin, Caithness, Dunblane, Dunkeld, Edinburgh, (which was erected into a see, so late as 1633, by King Charles I.) Galloway, the Isles, Moray, Orkney, and Ross. Although Glasgow was erected into an archiepiscopal see, St. Andrew's was always accounted the metropolitan see of Scotland. The sees of Argyle, Galloway, and the Isles, were suffragans to Glasgow, all the others to St. Andrew's.

The

The attempt to establish the episcopal form of worship in Scotland by Charles I. caused the commencement of that open resistance to his authority which terminated in his murder. His son Charles II. however revived it; but at the Revolution it was definitively abolished, and the church (or kirk as it is called in the language of the country) was fixed on its present presbyterian principle.

GOVERNMENT. The government of the church is by kirk sessions, presbyteries, provincial synods, and general assemblies. These ecclesiastical judicatures are composed of ruling elders, deacons, and ministers, who are all reputed as ecclesiastics in that church.

RULING ELDERS. The episcopal form of church polity is supposed to have been patronized so warmly by the Stuarts, from the notion that it tended to support prerogative. The presbyterian system is said to have captivated the majority of the people, not so much on account of its superior claim to apostolical institution, as because the laity are mixed with the clergy in church judicatories, and the two orders, which under episcopacy are kept so distinct, incorporated, as it were, into one body. In the Scottish church, every regulation of public worship, every act of discipline, and every ecclesiastical censure, which in other churches flows from the authority of a diocesan bishop, or from a convocation of the clergy, is the joint-work of a certain number of clergymen and laymen acting together with equal authority, and deciding every question by a plurality of voices. The laymen who thus form an essential part of the ecclesiastical courts of Scotland, are called *ruling elders*. Every parish has two or three of those lay-elders, who are grave and serious persons, chosen from among the heads of families, of known orthodoxy and steady adherence to the worship, discipline, and government of the church. Being solemnly engaged to use their utmost endeavours for the suppression of vice and the cherishing of piety and virtue, and to exercise discipline faithfully and diligently, the minister, in the presence of the congregation, sets them apart to their office by solemn prayer; and concludes the ceremony, which is sometimes called ordination, with exhorting both elders and people to their respective duties.

PROBATIONER. No man can lawfully preach in Scotland, unless he be licensed by a presbytery so to do; and such licence they rarely give to a student in divinity, unless he has first been admitted to trials.

When a student in divinity brings a certificate from a professor in an university, of his having performed his exercises with approbation, and of his manners, he is immediately tried by

the presbytery. Otherwise, if he has not studied at an university, they appoint a committee to try him before they try him themselves.

The trials of probationers are private before a presbytery, and public before a congregation, the presbytery being present. The private trials are a homily or two, and an *exegetis*, that is, a theological subject is given in to the presbytery in theses, and the probationer answers any objection which any minister in the presbytery makes against those theses. They examine in the languages, and in ecclesiastical history, and they put what extempore questions to him they please. The public trials are a popular sermon, and an exercise and addition, that is, a text is handled half an hour logically and critically, and for half an hour more practically. If in all these he approves himself to the satisfaction of the presbytery, he signs the confession of faith, and owns the presbyterian government to be the only government of the church within Scotland, and promises obedience to the judicatories of the Kirk; after which the presbytery give him a licence to preach.

Though a probationer may immediately after his licence accept a call to be a minister of a parish, yet it is usual to stay a year before he is ordained, and in the mean time he can only preach and pray; but has no public maintenance, nor can he administer any sacrament.

DEACONS. A deacon must be a man of good character for manners and understanding, who having a competency in the world, is chosen by the kirk session in every parish, approved by the congregation, and set apart by the minister solemnly before the congregation, after a sermon and prayer for the occasion, for his office, which is during life, unless he misbehaves himself. His business is to collect the offerings for the poor at the church doors when there is a sermon, which is the only public way in Scotland of providing for the poor; to enquire into the necessities of the parishioners; to visit and take an account of the condition of poor sick people; to acquaint the kirk session with their case; and to distribute to them as the kirk session shall appoint; to assist at the communion; to attend the ministers and elders in the visitation and examination of his particular district. In kirk sessions he has no vote, only may give his advice, if asked, except in matters relating to the poor; nor has he any stipend from the parish.

MINISTERS, OR PREACHING PRESBYTERS. The office of these persons includes the duties of deacons and ruling elders. They only can preach, administer the sacraments, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons, and ruling elders,
assist

assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories. Beside the minister's qualification of life and manners, of which severe scrutinies are made, he ought to be competently learned in the scriptures, the learned languages, and divinity. The presbytery always tries him before he can be licensed to preach, in order to obtain a call to be a minister of any parish; and usually in Scotland, all their ministers have had university education, and have commenced masters in arts.

None are ordained till they have obtained a call to a particular flock, which when obtained they cannot desert without the authority of a presbytery, or some superior judicatory. Pluralities, curacies, and non-residences, are not practised in Scotland. To be guilty of the last, merits deposition.

Formerly, when a parish wanted a minister, the heritors and elders, and in royal burghs the magistrates, and kirk session, and heritors, chose a probationer, *i. e.* one previously licensed by a presbytery to preach, or an ordained minister, to be their pastor. Him they proposed to the presbytery, desiring them to appoint one of their number to preach and preside among them. When the call was to be signed in a public meeting, the person to be called was then named to the congregation, who approved or disapproved, with giving reasons, of which the presbytery was the final judge. At present, however, every parish has a patron, who nominates or presents a qualified minister.

The crown, the nobility, and gentry, by the ancient laws and constitutions of Scotland, had the right of presenting ministers to livings in their gift, to the bishop of the diocese for institution and induction; but upon the abolition of episcopacy, lay patronages were taken away by act of parliament, and in case of a vacancy in any church the right of presentation was settled in the heritors of the said parish (being protestants) and the ruling elders: but that method being found prejudicial to the rights of lay patrons in disposing thereof, and for other reasons assigned, the parliament of Great Britain in the 10th year of Queen Anne enacted, that from and after the first day of May 1712, it shall and may be lawful for her majesty, her heirs and successors, and for every other person or persons who have a right to any patronage or patronages of any church or churches whatsoever (who have not made and subscribed a formal renunciation thereof under their hands) to present a qualified minister or ministers to any church or churches whereof they are patrons, which shall at any time after the said first day of May happen to be vacant; and the presbytery

of the respective bounds shall and is obliged to receive and admit the minister so presented accordingly.

The minister takes an oath of allegiance, and makes an assurance equivalent to the oath of supremacy.

Upon the ordination day, a fast is strictly kept to implore God's blessing upon the work they are about: the moderator preaches upon the nature and dignity of the ministerial office, then examines the person to be ordained, of his faith and assent to the doctrine and discipline of the kirk, of the motive of his coming into the ministry, and whether by any indirect means he has obtained that presentation or call; of his resolution to do his duty faithfully in that station, and to obey the several judicatories of the church in the Lord. Upon his answering to the moderator's satisfaction, the parishioners are called upon to ratify their choice by lifting up their hands. When that is done, the moderator goes from the pulpit into the middle of the church, and there he and the other ministers then present, lay their hands upon the head of the person that is to be ordained, and so ordain him minister of the Gospel, and pastor of that congregation. The ordination being over, the elders, heritors, and chief parishioners take their minister by the hand. If the nominee had been ordained before, he is only recommended to the people with a suitable sermon and prayers by the moderator, and the people take him by the hand. The patron is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

PRIVILEGES. The privileges of the Scotch clergy since the reformation, are as considerable as in any other protestant kingdom or state, in relation both to their persons and estates; for the law has provided, that such as shall be found guilty of assaulting the lives of ministers, or robbing their houses, or actually attempting the same, shall be punished by death and escheat of moveables. And that this law may be the better executed, five hundred marks reward is allowed to the discoverer, and three hundred marks to the apprehender of the aforesaid criminals, to be paid out of his majesty's treasury. And for their better accommodation, they are provided with convenient manfes (parsonage houses); and where they are not fitting, the heritors of the parish shall build complete manfes for them, not exceeding 1000*l.* nor under 500 marks value.

REVENUES. The law has provided that every parish church and such bounds as shall be found to be a sufficient and competent parish, shall have their own pastor, with a sufficient and reasonable stipend, according to the state and ability of the place; and be exempted from paying teynds (tenths). And as
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a farther addition to their maintenance, every minister has fuel, foggage, fail, and diviots allowed him (except ministers in burghs that have no right to glebes) with grafs for one horse and two cows to be designed; and if there be no kirk land near the manse, or the same be arable, then the heritors pay the minister twenty pounds yearly for their grafs. And when the right of teynds was settled upon the lay patrons, care was taken by the government that the teynds should be burdened with the minister's stipend, and with a proportionable augmentation for the future, as the rents of lands increased.

A minister that enters upon his charge before Whitsunday, has on that day a right to the whole year's stipend. If he enters between Whitsunday and Michaelmas, he has half and his predecessor if translated or deposed has the other half. But if his predecessor serves till after Michaelmas, he hath the whole of that year's stipend. The widow, children, and nearest kin to the defunct have a right by act of parliament to an annate, that is half a year's stipend over and above what was due for his incumbency. So, (ex. gr.) if he dies between Whitsunday and Michaelmas, half is due for incumbency, and half for annate. If after Michaelmas, there is a whole year's stipend for incumbency, and half the next year's stipend for annate; the annate is equally divided between widow and children, and in default of both it goes to the nearest kin. It is liable to pay no debts, and cannot be devised by the incumbent's will or assignation.

KIRK SESSIONS. In Scotland are 950 parishes, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches. Every parish is divided according to its extent into particular districts, each of which has its own elders and deacons to oversee it. A consistory of ministers, elders, and deacons is called a kirk session. This consistory meets once a week at least, to consider the affairs of the parish as a religious society. This is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its jurisdiction goes not beyond its own parish. The minister is always moderator, but without a negative; can call a kirk session when he pleases, and, if at home is always bound to attend; if absent, the elders and deacons may meet about the affairs of the poor without him, and can give also testimonials to any parishioner that would remove. The kirk session can judge of matters of lesser scandal; greater, such as adultery, &c. are left to the presbytery. They can suspend from the Lord's supper for a time; their consent in the call of a minister and precentor (parish clerk) is necessary; they provide all necessaries for the communion, and give notice of all catechisings and parochial visitations. They have a treasurer who is chosen out of the deacons, to

keep and distribute the poor's money, which distribution they direct. They keep two registers, one of births and marriages, the other of their own proceedings, which they must lay before the presbytery. Appeals lie from them in all cases to their own presbytery, whom they are to contradict in nothing.

PRESBYTERIES. The next judicatory is the *presbytery*, which consists of all the pastors within a certain district, and one ruling elder from each parish, commissioned by his brethren to represent, in conjunction with the minister, the session of that parish. They meet in the head town, from whence the presbytery is denominated, as often as they please, and choose their moderator, who must be a minister, half yearly; he is only their prolocutor, and if he is absent they choose another moderator *pro tempore*. When immediate business falls out within the time of the adjournment, the moderator can summon a presbytery to meet in the intermediate time as they call it *pro re nata*. The adjacent presbyteries usually send correspondents to each other, who upon producing their commissions have a vote in the presbyteries to which they are sent. By these means they can ask advice of each other in difficult cases, and they can give an account of their own determinations in parallel ones. In ordinary meetings there is always a presbyterial exercise upon a text of scripture appointed for that purpose, performed in the church by one or two ministers, whose names and texts with the presbytery's approbation are recorded, if their performance be approved. The members' names that meet are registered, and the absenters marked in order to be examined concerning the reason of their absence. Presbyteries have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds. They determine all appeals from kirk sessions, but can try nothing at the first instance which is cognizable before a kirk session. They compose all differences between ministers and people, for which end they hold presbyterial visitations in every parish, where they examine the register of the kirk sessions, and proceed accordingly to censure or commend as they find cause. They inquire into repairs of churches, and see that glebes and manes suffer no dilapidations: they appoint schools in all parishes, and see that the funds settled by act of parliament for that purpose be not misemployed: and the school-masters are subject to their censures and examination. They only can inflict the greater excommunication, that is, absolute prohibition of the communion of the Lord's supper. They licence probationers, interpose in all calls and ordinations of ministers to different parishes, suspend and depose them, and in short determine ecclesiastical matters of all sorts within their bounds, but so as not to contravene any act of parliament. There lies an appeal
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from the presbyteries in all cases to the provincial synods. Before they inflict privy censures they observe a fast. In these privy censures every minister withdraws by turns, and the moderator inquires of the rest concerning his conduct, and according to the report they are called in and commended, and encouraged or censured. All ecclesiastical judicatories begin, adjourn, and dissolve themselves by prayer.

PROVINCIAL SYNODS. These synods are composed of several adjacent presbyteries. The members are the same with those of the subordinate presbyteries, *viz.* the minister and a ruling elder out of every parish. This synod meets twice a year at the principal town of its bounds, and is opened with a sermon, preached by the preceding moderator, whose name and text is registered. They choose a *moderator* every ordinary session, who is their prolocutor without a negative. They send to and receive correspondents from the neighbouring synods, as the several presbyteries did before among one another, upon whom in every thing they are a check, appeals lying to them from presbyteries in all cases whatsoever. If the plurality of the presbytery desire it, the moderator can call an intermediate session, *pro re natâ*. Presbyteries are subject to the privy censures of the synods, as ministers are to the privy censures of presbyteries. At every ordinary session a diet is appointed, that is one certain time in which these privy censures are performed. All the acts of the synods are subject to the review of general assemblies; for which reason they keep exact registers of all their proceedings.

The 950 parishes of Scotland, with a few chapelries, compose sixty-eight presbyteries, which form thirteen provincial synods, according to the following table.

Presbyteries.	Provincial Synods.	Presbyteries.	Provincial Synods.
Edinburgh	In Lothian and Tweeddale	Middlebee	In Dumfries
Linlithgow		Lochmaban	
Biggan		Pentpout	
Peeblis		Dumfries	
Dalkeith		Wigton	In Galloway
Haddington		Stranraer	
Dumbar		Kirkcudbright	
Dunfermline	In Merse and Teviotdale	Air	In Glasgow and Air
Chirnside		Irvin	
Kelso		Paisley	
Jedburgh		Hamilton	
Selkirk		Lanark	
Erskine		Glasgow	
		Dumbarton	

Presbyteries.	Provincial Synods.	Presbyteries.	Provincial Synods.
Denorn	In Argyle and the Isles	Kinkardin	In Aberdeenshire
Campleton		Aberdeen	
Inverary		Alford	
Kilmoir		Garioch	
Skye		Deer	
Dunkeld	In Perth and Sterling	Turreff	In Murray
Perth		Fodie	
Dumblane		Ellon	
Stirling		Strathbogie	
Auchterarder		Elgin	
Dunfermline	In Fife	Forreſs	In Ross
Kirkaldy		Inverness	
St. Andrew's		Abernethy	
Cowpar		Aberlone	
Meigle		Charony	
Dundee	In Angus and Mearns.	Tain	In Orkney
Forfar		Dingwal	
Breechin		Dornoch	
Aberbrothick		Caithness	
Fordan		Orkney	
		Jetland	

GENERAL ASSEMBLIES. The general assembly is the *dernier resort* of the church of Scotland; to which appeals lie from every provincial synod, and from which no appeal lies. It consists of commissioners from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery consisting of less than twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder. If it contains between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers, and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two, whose election must be attested by the respective kirk session of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are usually of the first quality of the country.

This assembly meets once a year, and for the most part at Edinburgh. The sovereign, or his commissioner, is always present, but gives no vote. Upon the day appointed, the preceding moderator makes a sermon before the king's commissioner, and the members. Sermon ended, they go to the assembly house, where the commissioner being upon the throne, they

they proceed to choose a moderator. The election is managed thus: the last moderator nominates two or three ministers, to whom the assembly add whom they please. The nominees are said to be upon the list. Every man upon the list gives his vote and withdraws: then the assembly vote, and he that has the majority is chosen, and takes the chair at the foot of the throne. The moderator being chosen, the commissioner produces his commission, empowering him to sit there, with his majesty's letter to the assembly; both which are read by the clerk, all the members standing. The commissioner then makes a speech, which is answered by the moderator; and then committees are appointed. This closes the first day. Next day is set apart for prayers; the commissioner certainly attends that day. The moderator nominates eight or nine successively to pray; after which the assembly adjourns. Next day they proceed to business. The moderator has no negative; he only sums up the debates, and puts the question. The first business is always to answer the king's letter; which is done by a committee, whose draught is read and examined, and altered if need be, and then approved finally by the house. Then the moderator signs it in their presence, and delivers it to the commissioner, who sends it away to his majesty. Though the business is usually done by committees, yet any member may propose what he pleases in the assembly. When a motion is made, or any business is brought in by a committee, the moderator names two or three of the most eminent members to speak to it; after whom any other member may speak. When the debate is over, it is put to the vote, and carried, *agree* or *disagree*, by the majority.

Matters of great weight, that bind the whole church, are first brought in by way of overtures, and then debated in the house; after which, if approved, they are transmitted to every presbytery in Scotland, who return their answers by their commissioners to the next assembly, who, according as they find them approved by the presbyteries, pass them into acts of assembly, or reject them.

Once every assembly, a diet is appointed, to inspect the acts of the provincial synods, as they had before inspected the proceedings of the presbyteries. Before they arise, they nominate a standing commission of ministers and ruling elders, chosen out of every synod to attend the affairs of the church till the next assembly meets. Of these twenty-one is a *Quorum*, of whom fifteen must be ministers. The moderator of the assemblies moderates in the commission, if present. They were obliged to sit the first week of every quarter, all parliament

liament time before the Union, and as often else as they thought fit. They have the power of an assembly in all matters referred to them from it; regularly they can act in nothing but what is recommended from the assembly; but then that recommendation often includes a general clause, empowering them to act in every thing that may be for the good of the church. They are accountable to the next general assembly, and therefore keep a register of their proceedings.

When the assembly are to rise, the moderator tells them that it is time to dissolve themselves, and appoint another assembly in the name of their master, the Lord Jesus Christ: then he speaks to the commissioner in the name of the assembly, who returns an answer, and then dissolves them in the king's name, and fixes time and place of the new assembly, which is always to be within a year and a day after the dissolution of the old one. The moderator then prays, and the assembly sings a psalm; after which the moderator blesses them, and they arise.

PAROCHIAL EXAMINATIONS AND CATECHISING. Before every communion the minister visits and examines every family in his parish, once at least; of this, the Lord's day preceding, notice is given, that every district may know when he intends to visit them. He is accompanied with the ruling elder and deacon of the particular district, and carries a register book with him, in which the names of all the examinable persons are entered. When he comes into any family, he asks what addition or diminution there is since he was there last: if any addition, he desires the new comer to produce his testimonial of life and manners from the last place of his abode, without which, by several assembly acts, no man can be admitted as a member of any congregation. Upon producing such a certificate, his name is registered; upon failing, he is commanded to procure one, else he can be no member of that kirk. To live six weeks in a parish makes a man a parishioner, after which, if he leaves, he must get a certificate of his good behaviour, signed by the minister or kirk session clerk, in the name and with the consent of the kirk session. If the new comer only removes from another family in the parish, his name is transferred in the register (or, as they call it, the examination-book,) to its proper place. Then he marks the children, and enters them in his examination-book if they are of a fit age. He then exhorts every one to a strict observance of their respective duties, and particularly to family prayer, reading the Scriptures, and singing of psalms. To omit family prayer is esteemed very scandalous; and the omission of it is often punished with excom.

excommunication. At parting, the minister usually prays with every family.

Visitation being over, the minister gives notice when he will examine the persons marked in his book. Each district comes to church separately at the time appointed, and the minister, accompanied with the elder and deacon of that district, examines them in order as they stand in the examination-book. He examines them out of the shorter catechism, and if the person answers, he catechises upon these questions, and instructs them upon what is difficult. He marks also at every one's name how they answer. Adults who have been often examined are not catechised when they are found to be sufficiently knowing, this exercise being chiefly intended for children and ignorant persons.

PREACHING AND PUBLIC WORSHIP. Every Lord's day there is public worship twice in every parish church in Scotland; the method of which is this:—In the morning about ten o'clock the congregation meets, and when the minister is come, a psalm is sung which is read and tuned by the precenitor; after which the minister prays, and then reads a chapter or two out of the Bible, which he expounds for about half an hour; this is called lecturing; when another psalm is sung, and then another prayer; after which sermon begins; which ended, there is another prayer, and another psalm; and then all is concluded with the minister's blessing. Service is usually done by a quarter after twelve.

In the afternoon they meet about two: the order is the same as in the morning, only there is no lecturing. The afternoon sermon ought to be about some question in the shorter catechism.

In most of the royal burghs and towns there is once a week a week-day sermon besides; in villages only once a fortnight, and in some places only in summer-time. They use no instrumental music, nor have they any forms of prayer; but in the directory the Lord's prayer is recommended to be used, and general rules are there set down for prayer, preaching, singing, and administration of the sacraments.

BAPTISM. This sacrament is administered by none but the minister, who does it by sprinkling only, not immersion; whether it be administered at church or at home, there is always a sermon before it. The father, if he lies under no public scandal, and in his absence some reputable neighbours present the infant to the minister, who asks the parent if he desires that the child shall be received into the visible church, and receive the signs and seals of the covenant and grace by baptism? Upon his answering, Yea, the minister discourses concerning the nature
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of baptism, commands the parent and the congregation to stick to their baptismal vows, bids the parent educate his child in the fear, nurture, and admonition of the Lord, and adhere to the protestant religion, as contained in the Scriptures, the Confession of Faith, and the shorter and larger Catechism. This being promised by the parent or presenter, the minister craves a blessing upon the ordinance, and sprinkles a little water on the child's face, *in the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost.*

LORD'S SUPPER. Some time before the Lord's Supper is administered, the congregation is to have notice of it from the pulpit. The week before, the kirk session meets and draws up a list of all the communicants in the parish, according to the minister's examination-book and the testimony of the elders and deacons. According to this list tickets are given out to the elders to give to the communicants if required. The ministers and elders give tickets also to strangers, who bring sufficient testimonials; and none are ever allowed to communicate without such tickets, which are produced at the table. Those that never received, are instructed by the minister, severally and by themselves, in the nature of the sacraments, and taught what is the proper preparation thereunto.

The communion is always celebrated upon the Lord's day; the Wednesday or Thursday before there is a solemn fast; and on the Saturday there are two preparatory sermons. On Sunday morning, after singing and prayer as usual, the minister of the parish preaches a suitable sermon; and when the ordinary worship is ended, he, in the name of Jesus Christ, forbids the unworthy to approach, and invites the penitent to come and receive. Then he goes into the body of the church, where one or two tables, according to its width, are placed, reaching from one end to the other, covered with a white linen cloth, and seats on both sides for the communicants. The minister places himself at the middle or end of the table, on which the elements are placed. After a short discourse he reads the institution, and blesses the elements. Then he breaks the bread, and distributes it and the wine to those that are next him, who transmit them to their neighbours; the elders and deacons attending to serve, and to see that things are done decently and in order. Whilst these receive, the ministers discourse concerning the nature of this sacrament. When the first company has received, they withdraw, and others take their places; and whilst the companies are shifting, a psalm is sung, and so they continue till all have communicated. The minister then returns to the pulpit, and discourses concerning the particular cases of communicants; and with thanksgiving
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and singing of psalms the morning service is concluded. Then the congregation are dismissed for an hour, and so meet again, when they have the usual afternoon worship; and on Monday about nine o'clock in the morning, there is public worship and two sermons, which close the whole.

On these occasions the parish minister is assisted by two or three of his neighbours, and seldom preaches oftener than the morning of the sacrament day. Private communions are not allowed.

HOLY-DAYS. No holy-days are kept except the Lord's day, which is observed with great exactness. There are fasts and thanksgivings, in the appointing of which, although power is attributed to the church, yet the sanction of the privy council is added, that they may be the more religiously kept.

MARRIAGES. Marriage is solemnized by the minister. None can marry that are nearer than cousin germans; and prohibited degrees in blood hold also in affinity. Banns are always asked three several Lord's days in churches where both parties live, before marriage can be contracted; and the minister that marries any persons ought to have sufficient proof that banns have been already proclaimed.

The form of matrimony is not unlike that used in the church of England. The minister first prays, then discourses upon the institution, use, and ends of marriage, and the duty either party owes to the other; after that he asks the congregation if they have aught to object, and charges the persons to be married, to declare before the great God, if they know of any legal impediment why they should not be lawfully married. If no impediment be acknowledged, the minister commands them to join hands, the man saying, *I A. do take thee B. to be my married wife: and I do, in the presence of God, and before these his people, promise to be a loving and faithful husband unto thee, until God shall separate us by death.* And the woman saying, *I B. do take thee A. to be my married husband; and I do, in the presence of God, and before these his people, promise to be a loving, faithful, and obedient wife unto thee, until God shall separate us by death.* Then the minister pronounces them to be man and wife, and concludes all with a prayer.

BURIALS. The church of Scotland uses neither funeral sermons, or any public prayers at the burial of the dead.

METHOD OF DISCIPLINE. The discipline of the church is regulated by two assembly acts; one dated April 4. 1705; in which it is enacted, that in cases of gross scandal, where the persons guilty appear oftener than once before the congregation, the kirk session shall declare to them, that they are unworthy of the communion, or command them, penitent or not, to appear

appear in public, to be rebuked for their sin, according to Saint Paul's command, 1 Tim. v. 20. After such rebuke, the ministers and elders shall instruct them in the heinousness of their sins; and when they are satisfied that these offenders are truly penitent, shall admit them to public profession of their repentance, in order to absolution. If they continue impenitent, the kirk session shall consult its own presbytery, who, if they see cause, shall command the *sentence of lesser excommunication* to be denounced against them before the congregation, which shall continue till the sessions are satisfied of their amendment. And this sentence is to be intimated the Lord's day next before the administration of the sacrament. The other assembly-act bears date April 18. 1717. In that the whole form of process, with relation to scandals, censures, and absolutions, is set down with minuteness and precision.

PROTESTANT DISSENTERS. Dissenters of every denomination are found in Scotland, but the most numerous are those who were formerly members of the establishment, and are called *episcopalians*. The laity of this persuasion enjoy the same civil privileges with the established church. They are under no restrictions, are obliged to no tests; but are employed in all places of trust, either civil or military, only taking the oaths to the government.

THE LAW.

WHEN the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland was projected in the reign of James the First, the favourers of the plan judged it the more easy to be done, as both kingdoms were anciently under the same government, and still retained a great resemblance, though far from an identity in their laws. By an act of parliament, 1 Jac. I. c. 1., it was declared, that these two mighty, famous, and ancient kingdoms were formerly one; and Sir Edward Coke observed, how marvellous a conformity there was, not only in the religion and language of the two nations, but also in their ancient laws, the descent of the crown, their parliaments, their titles of nobility, their officers of state and of justice, their writs, their customs, and even the language of their laws; upon which account he supposed the common law of each to have been originally the same; especially as the ancient and authentic book called *Regiam Majestatem*, which contains the rules of the old common law of Scotland, is extremely similar

to that of Glanvil, which contains the principles of *ours*, as it stood in the reign of Henry II.* And the many diversities subsisting between the two laws at present, might be well enough accounted for, from a diversity of practice in two large and uncommunicating jurisdictions, and from the acts of two distinct and independent parliaments, which, in many points, altered and abrogated the old common law of both kingdoms.

The difficulties which at first opposed the union being surmounted, it became one of the articles, that the laws relating to trade, customs, and the excise, should be the same in Scotland as in England, but all the other laws of Scotland should remain in force; though alterable by the parliament of Great Britain. Yet with this caution: that laws relating to public policy are alterable at the discretion of parliament: laws relating to private right are not to be altered but for the evident benefit of the people of Scotland. Consequently the municipal laws of Scotland are ordained to be still observed in that part of the island, unless altered by parliament; and, as the parliament has not yet thought proper, except in a few instances, to alter them, they still (with regard to the particulars unaltered) continue in full force; the municipal or common laws of England are, generally speaking, of no force or validity in Scotland.

CIVIL LAW. The civil law, strictly so called, is the rule of all proceedings in Scotland, where the statute-law is defective: upon the civil law the solemn judgments in law cases have been collected, which are called *Pratiques*, a word of the same import with that of *Reports* in England. There is a greater harmony betwixt the laws of England and Scotland than one would imagine: for the acts of Sederunt are the same with the rules of court in England. The Scottish letters of advocacy are all one with the prohibitions in England: both nations agree in their practice in the secret examination of married women in passing of fines; and the *Jus Relictæ*, that is, the *Scottish terces*, and the *English thirds* are the same. The *Scottish wadssets* and *reversions*, answer to the *English mortgages* and *defeazances*; their *poinding of goods* after *letters of horning*, differs not from the *English executions* upon an *outlawry*: nor does the king's remission in Scotland free

* The work called *Regiam Majestatem*, derives its appellation from the words with which it commences. It has been a subject of some controversy whether this work or that of Glanville were the original; but it seems clearly decided that the English work was the more ancient, and was copied, and in some places explained, in the other. See the preface to Mr. Beames's translation of Glanville, p. xxiv.

from *assytthing*, any more than his pardon in England forecloses an appeal.

MUNICIPAL LAW. The municipal law consists either of acts of parliament, or of the custom and practices of the college of justice, which in cases not otherwise adjudged, have the force of acts of parliament; and when neither of these contradicts, the civil law is of force, which in truth is the common law of Scotland.

FOREST LAWS. Forest laws were designed for the good government of the king's forests, parks, woods, and chases; to prevent pasturing in forests by such as have no right to it, or without licence from the comptrollers or keepers, who, if they suffer it, are to forfeit that office, and the offender's chattels are to be escheated to the king; also to punish fellers of the king's wood, slayers of deer or wild fowl therein, with dog, hawk, bow, gun, or other engine, or those that shoot with any gun therein, or in the night, within a mile thereof, or slay any deer straying in time of storm, under the penalty of having all their goods escheated; to prevent hunting or hawking within six miles of the king's woods, parks, chases, and palaces, under the penalty of 100*l.*, half to the king, and half to the informer; which penalties the keepers of forests, and others having right thereto, by their infeofments, have power to inflict upon transgressors after trial and conviction by an inquest.

REGISTERS. The law of Scotland is easy and regular, by reason of public registers, of which there are two sorts, for recording conveyances of the lands and possessions of private subjects; whereof one is general, and fixed at Edinburgh, for the use of the whole kingdom, the other is more particular in the several shires, stuartries, and regalities; they were first established by act of parliament in the reign of James II. since which time they are the best repositories of records relating to civil rights of the subjects; which are so full, that titles are much more easily understood, than can be done without them; for by this means men are not cheated in purchasing and conveying estates; which may appear by the following instances.

No man can have a right to any estate, but by his being seised of it, and that must be registered within sixty days, otherwise it is of no effect; by which means all secret conveyances are cut off; for if no seisin be passed upon them, or if they be not entered in the register, which every one is at liberty to search, the conveyance is of no force.

Secondly, All bonds have a clause in them for inserting them in the public registers; and they being registered, without any further

further action, by a charge of six days the debtor must make payment, otherwise writs, called letters of *horning*, *caption*, and *poinding*, are given out; by the first of which the party is under outlawry and rebellion, and forfeits to the king his personal estate; and if he continue a year under it, the life-rent of his real estate, in which the creditor is preferred for his interest, and the rest goes into the exchequer. By the letters of *caption* the debtor is seized and put into prison, nor is his house a place of security, but may be searched for him. By the letters of *poinding*, the debtor's goods may be distrained wherever they can be found.

A third instance is, that any creditor may serve a writ on his debtors, called letters of *inhibition*, which hinders him from making any disposition of his goods or estate, till the creditor is satisfied, and all is null and to no effect that he does afterwards, if these letters be returned registered within twenty-one days after they are served, otherwise they are of no force. In short, all reversions, regresses, bonds, and writs for making the same, assignations thereto, discharges thereof, renunciation of wadsets, grants of redemptions, and all instruments of seisin, are to be registered in the general registry, to be appointed by the clerk-register at Edinburgh, or in particular registers for that purpose, within threescore days after date of them; and extracts out of the said register make faith in all cases, except in the case of improbation: and if any of the said writs shall not be registrate, they are null in prejudice of a third party; but not against the maker thereof and his heirs. This registration is annexed to the clerk-register's office, and is to be made by him or his deputies within forty-eight hours after the receipts of the writs, under pain of deprivation of the clerk of his place and office of notary; who are also to deliver back the writs, marked with the day, month, year, and leaf of the registration, for which he is to receive twenty-six shillings and eight-pence for his fee, and then they are delivered to the clerk-register, to be patent, and extracts thereof given to the proprietors; which law now extends to all lands in burghs and their liberties, and the town clerks are to keep a several book for their registrations, depending only on the magistrates, and not the clerk-register. All letters of horning, inhibitions, interdictions, seisins, and reversions, are to be registered; the first within fifteen days, the second and third within forty days, and the last two within sixty days, or else they are null and of no effect. All charters, and other writs passing the great seal and privy seal, must be registered by the writs thereto, in the registers thereof, and no keeper must append the seal to any

writ, before he receives a certificate that the instruments are registered.

COURTS. There exists in Edinburgh, as in former times, a complete establishment for the administration of justice. The principal courts of law are three in number: a civil, a criminal, and a revenue or exchequer court.

COURT OF SESSION. The supreme civil court is styled the Court of Session. This court was established in its present form in 1532. It was appointed to consist of fifteen ordinary judges, seven churchmen, seven laymen, and a president, whom it behoved to be a churchmen. Beside these, the lord chancellor had a right to preside and vote in that court; and the king might also appoint three or four peers of the realm *extraordinary lords*, as they were called, with a power to take their seats on the bench, and vote when they thought proper; a privilege which he never failed to exercise. This part of its constitution was a great nuisance. Men, ignorant of the laws in general, and unacquainted with the particular cases in which they interfered, who had no salary, and who on these accounts could not be expected to attend the court but when instigated by personal interests or political views, were not ashamed to take their places amidst experienced judges, and to thwart the ordinary course of justice. This pernicious privilege has been abrogated since the accession of the house of Hanover. The judges of this court are now appointed by the crown from among the body of advocates or barristers of at least five, or writers to the signet of ten years' standing; but, in practice, instances of the latter being raised to the bench are extremely rare. The court at present consists of a president and fourteen other judges. Each of the fourteen sits for a week alternately in the *outer house*. The judge so sitting is called the *lord ordinary*; and except certain causes supposed to be of peculiar interest and importance, or to which the law allows unusual dispatch, which can at once be brought before the whole lords, he discusses all the new causes that are put into the roll during the week that he sits in judgment. These causes are seldom determined upon a single hearing; and the judge has a power of altering his own sentence as often as he inclines. Each of the lords comes once or oftener in the week to the outer house, to hear pleadings, or give judgment upon those causes which came first before him when he sat as lord ordinary; and upon which many written cases, or *representations* as they are called, may have already been laid before him. If the parties do not acquiesce in the lord ordinary's judgment, which in matters of importance is often the case, application is made for altering the sentence by a printed petition, which

which is presented to the whole lords. Besides petitions, various printed papers are produced, under the titles of states, cases, proofs, informations, answers, replies, and duplies; yet, notwithstanding these voluminous papers, the lords will hear pleadings in the same cause, and these so diffuse as to occupy the court during a whole week, sometimes three weeks.

The Court of Session, or Lords of Council and Session, possess a supreme civil jurisdiction, liable, however, since the Union, to the review of the House of Lords, although before the union, no appeal lay from the Court of Session to the parliament. They do not judge maritime nor consistorial causes, nor those which are proper to a court of freeholders, or the lord lyon in the first instance; but the decrees of these different courts are subject to their review. They possess a criminal jurisdiction, not only in matters which may arise incidentally in civil causes, such as perjury and forgery, but also in the crimes of usury, deforcement, or resistance to the officers of the law, wrongous imprisonment, fraudulent bankruptcy, and others; and although they cannot indeed punish capitally, yet whipping, imprisonment, pillory, and perpetual banishment, are classed among the punishments which they once inflicted.

Their power is chiefly important because they act both as judges and jury; and at once as a court of law and of equity, not bound by strict forms when they appear inconsistent with justice. In virtue also of a statute, empowering the Court of Session to make rules for regulating the procedure which occurs before them, and for the speedy execution of justice, they exert a kind of legislative authority. By edicts called *acts of sederunt*, they not only regulate the forms of procedure before the court, but, like the Roman prætors, declare the principles upon which, in certain cases, they intend to administer justice. Thus, by one of these acts of sederunt, they superseded an express act of parliament which regulated the mode of removing farmers from their possessions, and established a new mode. By other acts of sederunt, they ordained that all bankrupts should continually wear an upper coat, of which the one-half should be of yellow cloth, and the other of brown, and upon their heads a party coloured cap of the same sort. They understand themselves to be in some measure successors of the Scots privy council, and as intitled to provide a remedy for every evil or irregularity that may occur in society, against which no other provision is made. Accordingly they have frequently fixed the prices of provisions, and have given authority to magistrates to compel all

inn-keepers and dealers in poultry to declare upon oath at what prices they had sold poultry, dressed or undressed; so that it might be discovered whether the standard price had been conformed to. Upon the death of commissaries in the ecclesiastical courts, and of sheriff-deputes, they have been in use to grant commissions to persons to exercise these offices till they were of new filled up by the crown.

JUDGES. The judges in this court and their salaries are, the *Lord President*, 3000*l.*, the *Lord Justice Clerk*, 1500*l.*, and the *Lords of Session*, 1200*l.* each.

OFFICERS. There are in this court various officers from the principal clerks downward, but their several employments do not demand enumeration.

ADVOCATES. The advocates in this court are gentlemen of liberal education, who undergo examinations upon the Scottish and Roman laws; they also pay upon their admission a sum of money which has been increased at different periods, and at present, including perquisites to inferior officers, amounts to nearly 170*l.*

THE KING'S OR LORD ADVOCATE. This great officer is mentioned in this place, although he is not peculiarly connected with the Court of Session, but as the head of the profession of advocates. His office is similar to that of the attorney-general in England; his business is to pursue and defend in all causes wherein the king has an interest, and he is styled *My Lord*. His power and privileges are very great. He is allowed to sit within the bar of the Court of Session covered, where only the peers of the realm are allowed to sit. He can issue warrants for searching, apprehending, and imprisoning, in any part of Scotland; and his warrants are as valid as any judge's; and as it was decided in the parliament of Paris in 1685, that the king's advocate might at the same time be a judge; so in like manner was it allowed in Scotland; as both Sir William Oliphant and Sir John Nesbit were lord advocates and lords of session at the same time. His salary is 1500*l.* a year.

WRITERS, SOLICITORS, AND AGENTS. The persons who conduct business in the same way that attornies and solicitors do in England are of orders. The first class are styled *writers, or clerks, to his majesty's signet*. They possess the exclusive privilege of writing summonses and other writs which pass in the king's name. They serve an apprenticeship of five years, paying a clerk's fee of 100*l.*, and sums to the society of writers to the signet amounting to an additional 110*l.*, and they undergo an examination at their admission. There is likewise an incorporated society of *solicitors* before the supreme courts, who

who serve an apprenticeship of three years, and pay a moderate sum at their admission. In addition to these, every advocate is entitled to nominate a *first clerk*, who possesses the privilege of acting as an agent before the court.

COURT OF JUSTICIARY. The supreme criminal court of Scotland is called the *Court of Justiciary*. It has a power of reviewing the decisions of all inferior courts; but it is understood that no appeal lies against its decrees to the House of Lords. Anciently the *Justice Ayre*, or Court of Justiciary, was the supreme court, civil as well as criminal; and causes of both kinds were tried in it by juries. It retained its civil jurisdiction sometime after the institution of the Court of Session; but it is now abolished. The judges in it formerly were, the lord justice general, justice clerk, and certain assessors added to them by the privy council, who were chosen from among persons not versed in the laws, and whose commissions only lasted during the particular trials upon which they were appointed to preside. A constitution so highly improper was altered by Charles II., and the court modelled into its present form. It now consists of the lord justice general, who is always a peer of the most distinguished rank or influence, the lord justice clerk, and four commissioners of justiciary, who are also lords of session. The office of lord justice general bears a similar relation in the Court of Justiciary to that of one of the extraordinary lords formerly in the Court of Session, and like those too ought to be abolished, were it not on account of the trial by jury used in this court which renders the office harmless.

The judges of this court go on circuit to the principal districts of the country, where they hold courts twice a year. Upon these circuits they possess a civil jurisdiction by way of appeal in causes below 12*l.* sterling, and in these they proceed without a jury.

In criminal trials before this court the peremptory challenge is not allowed to the accused party; but in every other respect the form of procedure is more favourable to him than in England. He must be served a fortnight before his trial with a full copy of the indictment, with a list of the witnesses against him, and of the names of forty-five men, out of whom the jury of fifteen are to be appointed. He is also, in every case, contrary to the English law, allowed the assistance of counsel, who, besides examining and cross-examining the witnesses, have the privilege of addressing the jury after the counsel for the crown has ended.

The salary of the *Lord Justice General* is 2000*l.*; of the *Lord Justice Clerk* 1200*l.*; and of each of the *Lords Commissioners*

sioners 780*l.*; the *Solicitor General* has 600*l.* a year, and there are some other officers.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER. In the court of exchequer, revenue causes alone are tried. It was established in its present form in consequence of the treaty of Union, and trials proceed in the English manner. The judges of this court are, the high treasurer of Great Britain, with a chief baron and other four barons, who must be either serjeants at law or English barristers, or Scottish advocates of five years' standing. All may plead before this court who can practise in the courts of Westminster Hall or in the Court of Session. The salary of the chief baron is 3000*l.*; that of the senior puisne baron 2075*l.*; and of the other barons 1200*l.* The king's remembrancer has 1000*l.* a year, and the principal auditor 1200*l.*; there are various other officers.

ADMIRALTY COURT. Although Scotland never possessed a powerful navy, yet the court of admiralty is as ancient as in most other kingdoms and states in Europe; and the office of lord high admiral has been usually entrusted to persons of the greatest quality. By act 16. Parl. 3. Charles II. the admiralty is declared to be a supreme court in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh water, and navigable rivers below the first bridge, or within flood mark: so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, *in prima instantia*, but by the lord high admiral and the judge and judges of his court; and no advocacy or appeal lies from it to the lords of session, or any other court of judicature, unless in cases not maritime. Sentence passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before this court. No suspension or other stop to his decrees can be passed, except by the lords assembled together in session-time, and by three lords met together for that purpose in vacation-time; and, if they find that the suspension was unjustly procured, they may give damages to the persons aggrieved, over and above the expences of their plea, before the lords. This court also may review its own acts, wherein it is controulable by no other court; and in this power it is confirmed by the 19th article of the act of Union; subject to such regulations and alterations as the parliament of Great Britain shall think fit. All maritime causes, crimes, trespasses, actions, &c. are triable before the judge of this court, (for the lord high admiral never judges in person,) by the civil law and customs of Scotland; in which the court is assisted in deciding some particular cases by the laws of *Oleron*, *Wisby*, and other maritime con-

constitutions. There are also other peculiar jurisdictions of admiralty, hereditary in some families. Thus the Duke of Argyle is hereditary admiral of the *Western Isles*; the Earl of Sutherland of the shire of *Sutherland*; the Earl of Morton of *Orkney* and *Zetland*. Again, many noblemen are constituted deputy admirals on several coasts by the lord high admiral, changeable at his pleasure. The magistrates of great towns, on the coast, are appointed admirals' deputies within their own precincts; and such of his majesty's ships, which at any time are stationed in the Firth, for guarding and securing the coasts, receive their orders from the Lord Provost of Edinburgh. The principal officers are a lord high admiral with a salary of 1000*l.* and a judge with 400*l.*

COLLEGE OF JUSTICE. The members of all the courts, with the practitioners before them, constitute an incorporation called the *College of Justice*, which was instituted by James the Fifth. The judges of the court of session are styled *senators* of this college or incorporation. It includes advocates, writers to the signet, agents, the first clerk of advocates, the clerks of the courts, and the attorneys in the exchequer. The whole members of this incorporation, forming the most wealthy and not the least numerous class of persons in Edinburgh, possess the privilege of paying no taxes to the city of Edinburgh for the support of the clergy, the city guard, lighting the streets, or any other purpose.

FACULTY OF ADVOCATES. Upon the institution of the college of justice, otherwise the session, ten persons of the best reputation, knowledge, and experience, were appointed to plead in all actions before that court; and when any more were necessary the numbers were supplied by advice of the senators or lords; but business increasing, their number increased also. So that now it is reckoned, there are about three hundred, many of whom are gentlemen of good families and estates. The body meet on the first Tuesday of January annually, and chuse a dean, treasurer, clerks, examiner, and librarians. And they enjoy many great and valuable privileges, with the rest of the college of justice.

ADVOCATES' LIBRARY. As a literary establishment, the Advocates' Library is highly worthy of notice. Sir George Mackenzie had the merit of projecting this institution, which was founded in 1682. In 1695 the collection was considerably increased by a donation from William Duke of Queensberry; and it was long usual for men of rank to make presents to it of rare and curious books and other objects. As every advocate at his admission pays a sum of money to the faculty, a part of this money is appropriated to the preservation and increase of

the library. The statutes also, which establish the literary property of authors in their books, require that a copy of each book shall be given gratuitously to this library. The collection of books is, upon the whole, select, and amounts to nearly 60,000 volumes, in all sciences, and in several languages. Very eminent men have been keepers of this library, particularly Thomas Ruddiman, Walter Goodall, and David Hume. Besides printed books, the Faculty are in possession of a valuable collection of manuscripts, consisting of the Registers of many of the Scottish monasteries, of illuminated missals, and of many volumes of original papers relating to the affairs of Scotland, as well as copies of others which have been preserved by Sir Robert Cotton, or are extant in the public offices in England. The Faculty are also in possession of a collection of prints. Among other curiosities, the Faculty possess an entire mummy preserved in the original chest. This was purchased by the late Earl of Morton, lord register of Scotland, at the expence of 300*l.*, and was presented by him to the Faculty. In 1705 the Faculty purchased and still possess a large collection of coins and medals. They are chiefly Greek, Roman, Saxon, Scottish, and English; but no use is made of them. The books in this library are lent out to the members of the Faculty upon their receipts; and each member may obtain as many books as he thinks fit, subject to the obligation of restoring them at the end of a year.

LEARNING.

In all periods, Scotland has contributed her full proportion toward the mass of literature and science, with which Europe has been edified and adorned; and the good sense and liberal policy of the nation have been such, that knowledge has not been monopolized by one class, while those in inferior stations have been left destitute of the very elements of learning and means of thinking, but instruction to a certain degree has been diffused among all ranks of people. How far such general education might be beneficial in a rich, corrupt, and luxurious community, may be the subject of some speculation, but in Scotland it has produced the best effect, in imparting and sustaining an honest pride and manly self-denial, and in encouraging conscious worth to seek independence, if not to be found at home, through the paths of industry, utility, and perseverance in foreign climes. Hence among the useful practitioners in every liberal art in all countries, the natives of Scotland are to be found, while they never augment the number of needy,
pro-

profligate adventurers, or swell the disgraceful mass of an ignorant and turbulent rabble.

SCHOOLS. In every parish is a school established by act of parliament, whose master has a salary from the public, and the scholars allow him a small sum quarterly. In country schools, they teach writing and arithmetic, and reading English, and in some Latin. In the royal burghs they teach Latin and Greek, and have tolerable salaries; besides that each scholar gives two shillings or two shillings and sixpence a quarter; and in these schools they teach nothing else, having English and writing schools besides in all places where they have grammar schools. In country parishes, the schoolmaster is usually precentor. For a continual supply of ministers in the kirk of Scotland, it was ordained by the General Assembly sitting at Edinburgh, in 1645, that a number of pious youths, of good expectations and approved abilities, should be chosen, and sent bursars, or exhibitioners, to the universities, by the several presbyteries of Scotland, every presbytery consisting of twelve kirks, being required to send and maintain one burfar yearly at the university; and where the presbyteries are fewer in number, they are to join with other presbyteries to make up the number: and the overplus of the number to be ordered and disposed by the presbyteries and synods; and their books to bear record thereof. These bursars are to be allowed for their maintenance 100*l.* Scots per annum at least, which is to be taken out of the kirk penalties; and the said maintenance to be collected by the moderator of every presbytery, by equal portions, at the winter and summer synods. The time of the bursars' continuance at the university is not to exceed four years; if before that time any of these bursars should be removed by death, or called to a particular charge, another is to succeed in his room. All bursars of theology are obliged to bring testimonies from their universities, of their proficiency and good behaviour, and be also ready to give a proof of their labours at the several synods, if required: and if they are found deficient, their exhibitions are taken away and given to others. Besides bursars from presbyteries, there are also others maintained by noblemen and gentlemen, ministers and others, who have left great sums of money for that end; and by a gift of William III. divers students have considerable allowances to study beyond seas; which gift is charged upon the revenues of the late bishops.

UNIVERSITIES. There are in Scotland four universities, which are mentioned according to their antiquity.

SAINT ANDREW'S. This university is situated in the town of the same name in the county of Fife. It appears to have been

been begun in 1411, by Henry Wardlaw, then bishop of Saint Andrew's. It was confirmed, on the following year, by Pope Benedict the Thirteenth. The seminary was encouraged by James the First; but it was not till 1444 that funds appear to have been provided for rendering it permanent. It afterwards consisted of three colleges; viz. St. Salvadore, founded by James Kennedy, Bishop of St. Andrew's, in 1458; St. Leonard's, founded by Prior Hepburn, in 1512; and St. Mary's, founded by Bishop John Hamilton, 1552. In each of these colleges were lecturers of theology, as well as in philosophy, languages, &c. In the reign of James the Sixth, 1579, under the direction of George Buchanan, the university was new modelled, and St. Mary's college was appropriated to the study of theology, and is therefore distinguished by the name of the Divinity-college, or the New-college. In 1747, on a petition from the masters of the two colleges of St. Salvadore and St. Leonard, the parliament formed them into one society, under the designation of the United College, but they are independent of each other in their revenues and discipline. The *senatus academicus*, or university-meeting, consists of the principal and professors of both colleges. The library belongs also to the university. The rector is chosen by an assembly called the *comitia* of the university, consisting of the rectory, principal, and professors of both colleges, with the students of divinity, of moral and of natural philosophy. All these masters and students are divided according to the place of their birth, into four nations, Fifians, Angusians, Lothians, and Albans; which last class comprehends all who belong to none of the first three. Each nation chooses an intrant, and the four intrants name the rector. If the votes of the intrants are equally divided, the last rector, who is preses of the *comitia*, has the casting voice. The only persons eligible into the office of rectorate, are the principals and the professors of divinity. The rector is a civil judge in the university, before whom complaints may be brought against any of the members, and appeals from the courts of each college lie to him. In the rector's court the assessors have no power to controul his decisions. In each college are apartments for lodging the students, for which no rent is due. There is also a public table for the bursars or pensioners on the foundation, who are very numerous. In the united college there is a separate table for such students as chose to board themselves. One of the masters presides at each table. The principal and professors wear black gowns, and the students of the united college scarlet. The session of college annually lasts about six months and a half; and in all the Scottish universities

sities the session is uninterrupted ; that is, it does not consist of separate terms as in England.

GLASGOW. The university of Glasgow consists of a single college, the buildings of which stand on the east side of the High Street. The front toward the street is of polished stone, three stories in height, and 330 feet in length. The principal gate is in the centre, and has the royal arms placed over it. At some distance, to the right and left, are two other lofty arched gates ; the one leads into a handsome court, in which the professors reside. The sides of the area in this court have a stone pavement, and the middle is formed with gravel, with a well in the centre. The other side gate leads into a garden allotted to the principal of the university. The chief gate, first mentioned, and which is in the centre of the front of the buildings, leads into a court or area surrounded by stone buildings. The open area is 88 feet long, and 44 feet broad. From this court is a passage eastward to a second court, the area of which is 103 feet in length, and 79 feet in breadth. Both courts are paved with hewn free stone. In the outer or smaller western court nearest the street, is what is called the Faculty Hall of the university. It contains two historical paintings by Reubens ; the burial of our Saviour, and the martyrdom of Saint Katharine. The chapter room of the university is in this court, and also the divinity-hall, and other apartments for the accommodation of different classes. The divinity-hall is ornamented by portraits of John Knox and Martin Luther, George Buchanan, William the Third and Mary his queen, Queen Anne, and others.

Over the passage or entry from the outer to the inner and larger court, is the steeple of the college. The inner court contains halls, class rooms, and other apartments. On the southern side of this innermost or eastern court, adjoining to the garden, is the library of the university, a handsome and lofty apartment, containing about 20,000 volumes. Here are preserved a considerable number of stones containing ancient inscriptions or figures brought from the Roman wall between the Forth and Clyde. The garden of the university is laid out in walks, lined with trees and hedges, but kept always in grass. To the eastward, beyond the Molendinar Burn, over which a bridge is thrown, the territory ascends, and in an elevated situation the observatory of the university is placed. It contains a valuable apparatus for the study of astronomy, and in particular a reflecting telescope, constructed by Herschel, ten feet in length, and ten inches in diameter. This university has professors in divinity, church history, Oriental languages, natural philosophy, mathematics, moral philosophy,
I logic,

logic, Greek, humanity, civil law, medicine, anatomy, and botany, practical astronomy, materia medica, chemistry, midwifery, botany, natural history, drawing, and painting.

Beside the regular professors, the college has a chancellor, rector, dean of faculties, and principal. The session of college commences in October or November, and terminates in May or June in different classes. Degrees are granted by the university to students after examination; but the degree of doctor of divinity and doctor of laws is, both there and in other Scottish universities, considered as honorary. The college possesses considerable funds, which are managed by the principal and professors, who fix from time to time the extent of their own salaries, which are moderate; so that their personal wealth depends in a great degree upon the fees received from students.

This university was originally instituted by a bull from Pope Nicolas the Fifth, at the request of James the Second; and William Turnbull, then bishop of Glasgow, and his successors in that see, were appointed patrons of the university. The bull is dated at Rome the 7th of January 1450. The university was opened in the following year, and to give celebrity to the event, the bishop published a bull which he obtained from the pope, granting an universal indulgence to all good Christians who should visit Glasgow in 1451. David Cadzow was the first rector. They had several charters and privileges. The magistrates of Glasgow were required to swear a sort of allegiance to the college, or that they would observe its whole immunities and statutes. The most complete civil and criminal jurisdiction was conferred upon the rector of the university; and whatever houses were possessed by its members, the rents of them were ordained to be fixed by a jury, consisting half of members of the university and half of citizens. Before the reformation the whole university formed a general corporation, while at the same time it was divided into different faculties, which, like the different classes of tradesmen in a borough, were distinct inferior corporations, enjoying peculiar immunities, property, and bye-laws. It is singular that when this university was instituted, no funds appear to have been set apart for its support, nor any salaries granted to those employed in the laborious business of teaching, neither was any sufficient authority constituted for rectifying disorders that might occur. The consequence was, that when the Roman Catholic hierarchy fell into pieces at the Reformation, and its property was seized by the crown or the nobles, this university almost ceased to exist; gradually, however, the crown and individuals granted to it various donations, particularly of tithes and

and church property, and James the Sixth, in his minority, during the regency of Morton in 1577, granted it some ecclesiastical property, and a new charter of foundation, regulating its constitution, and confirming its previous privileges. Charles the First granted to the college in 1641 the temporality of the bishopric of Galloway. After the revolution in 1693, the sum of 300*l.* per annum was granted to each of the Scottish universities out of the property of the abolished bishoprics in Scotland; and the college of Glasgow, to secure payment of this sum more effectually, obtained a lease for nineteen years of the rents of the archbishopric, and this lease has been periodically renewed by the crown. At present, by the constitution of the university, the office of *chancellor* is usually filled by some nobleman or other gentleman of rank in the country, chosen by the rector, dean of faculty, principal, and professors. The chancellor, being the head of the university, presides in all its councils, and in his name are all academical degrees bestowed.

The *rector* is chosen annually in the *comitia*; that is, in a court in which all the students, on this particular occasion, are entitled to vote as well as the other members of the university. He, with the advice of his assessors, whom he nominates, judges in all disputes amongst the students, and betwixt them and the citizens. He also summons and presides in the meetings of the university called for the election of his successor, or for preparing addresses to the king, electing a member to the General Assembly, &c.

The officer next in rank is the *dean of faculty*, who is chosen annually by the rector, principal, and professors. His office consists in giving directions with regard to the course of studies; in judging, together with the rector, principal, and professors, of the qualifications of those who desire to take academical degrees; and in such meetings as are called for these purposes, he, in absence of the rector, presides.

There have been several valuable donations to this university, one is called *Snell's Foundation*, and another *Anderson's Institution*, but one of the most important was that made by the late Dr. William Hunter of London. He, by his will, bequeathed his museum to the university, reserving the use of it for thirty years to his nephew, (and failing him to his partner,) for the purpose of promoting anatomical and natural knowledge. He also left to the university 8000*l.* sterling, to be paid to them within two years, one-half of the interest whereof to be applied for supporting the museum while in London; the other half, together with the capital, to be at the immediate disposal of the university, for the purpose of buying ground, and erecting

erecting proper buildings for the reception of the museum. The principal articles of the museum are, a most curious and valuable library of books and manuscripts; his own large and incomparable anatomical preparations; a choice collection of natural curiosities, including, among other particulars, the large collection of shells, corals, insects, and snails, of the late Dr. Fothergill; and a cabinet of coins and medals, ancient and modern, of which the different series are confessedly the most complete and best connected of any in Europe, and are said (this last article alone) to have cost him upwards of 25,000*l.* sterling. This donation, by the decease of the intermediate assignees, has taken effect.

ABERDEEN. In this place are two universities, totally distinct and separate from each other, and which separately confer the usual degrees. The Marischal College and University belongs to New Aberdeen, and the King's College to Old Aberdeen. The *Marischal College* and University was founded and well endowed by George Earl Marischal of Scotland, by a charter dated the 2d April 1593. The original foundation was a principal and two professors of philosophy; but by some munificent donations, there have been since added another professorship of philosophy, one of divinity, and others for mathematics, chemistry, medicine, and oriental languages, and many bursaries for poor students. The buildings are situated in the Broad-street of New Aberdeen, and contain, beside lecture-rooms for the different classes, the public school for conferring degrees, a common hall ornamented with some fine paintings by Jamieson and others, the library, and a small museum of natural history and antiquities. The college also contains an observatory well furnished with astronomical apparatus. The officers are, the chancellor, the rector, the dean of faculties, the regent, who is also professor of Greek, and the principal.

The *King's College* is the chief ornament of Old Aberdeen, and is a large and stately fabric. It appears that there existed an university here as early as the reign of Malcolm the Fourth; but the present college was founded by Bishop Elphinstone, who obtained, in the year 1494, a bull from Pope Alexander, instituting in the city of old Aberdeen or Aberdon, *studium generale*, for theology, canon and civil law, medicine, the liberal arts, and every lawful faculty privileged to grant degrees according to the merits of the students; which degrees bestow all privileges, &c. *ubicunque terrarum*, which belong to any other university. The college was founded in 1506, and being taken under the immediate protection of the king, it was denominated the King's College. James IV. and Bishop Elphinstone endowed it with very large revenues. The bishop of Aberdeen for the time was declared

declared to be chancellor of the university. The building is ancient, containing a chapel, library, museum, common hall, and rooms for the lectures; and a long uniform range of modern houses for the accommodation of the professors, and such students as choose to live in the college. Behind is the garden of the college, and the principal's house and garden. The library and museum are well furnished. There are bursaries for poor students, the funds for the support of which amount to near 17,000*l*. The session lasts five months, beginning in November. The officers are, a chancellor, generally a nobleman of high rank; a rector, entitled Lord Rector; a principal, a sub-principal, and a procurator, who has charge of the funds. The professors are, of humanity or Latin, Greek, three of philosophy, Oriental languages, civil law, divinity, and medicine.

The crown is superior or patron of both colleges, having succeeded to the King's College upon the abolition of episcopacy, and to the latter on the attainder of the late earl marischal; but has never interfered in the elections of their chancellors or rectors. Different attempts have been made to unite the two into one university and one college, but hitherto without effect.

EDINBURGH. The capital of Scotland could not boast of a regular university till the year 1582. Before this period, however, teachers of philosophy and divinity had been long established in the city. That illustrious and accomplished monarch, James I. anxious to promote the learning of the times among his people, had, after his return from his long captivity in England, invited a number of learned Franciscans to his country, and conferred on them grants, and erected houses for them in various districts. The citizens of Edinburgh, zealous to promote the same end, seconded the views of their enlightened prince. They built for the reception of these friars a magnificent convent; but one of the learned monks, Cornelius of Zirichzen, thinking the splendid apartments which the generosity of the citizens had provided ill suited to the barefooted mendicants of the order of St. Francis, modestly declined accepting the appointment. By the persuasion, however, of James Kennedy, Archbishop of St. Andrew's, and founder of St. Salvador's college in that city, Cornelius fixed his residence in Edinburgh, where he himself, his brethren, and their successors, taught philosophy and divinity until the year 1559. The reformation in religion, and the consequent dissolution of religious houses at that period, abolished this institution, to make way for one which was in time to throw light upon science, add lustre to learning, and enlarge in no small degree the boundaries

daries of human knowledge. The house occupied by these friars stood on the south side of the Grass-market, almost opposite the foot of the lane called the West-bow; and the gardens belonging to it were by an act of the town council in 1561 converted into a burial place, which still, from its former proprietors, retains the name of the Grey Friars' Church-yard.

In the year 1566, when the reformed religion was fully established, the citizens of Edinburgh petitioned their royal mistress for the lands and other property in the neighbourhood of the city, which belonged to the Black and Grey Friars. Their request was in part complied with, and the inhabitants in consequence resolved to erect an university. A bequest of eight thousand merks, Scottish money, which had been left for this purpose by Robert Reid, Bishop of Orkney, and president of the court of session, who died at Dieppe on the 14th of September 1558, likewise encouraged them in their undertaking. In 1563, they had purchased the property of the collegiate church of St. Mary in the Field, (*Sancta Maria in campis*), as a site for their intended college, and afterwards made attempts to carry the plan into execution. The opposition they met with, however, in the outset of their undertaking, from the Archbishop of St. Andrew's and Glasgow, and the ecclesiastics of the see of Aberdeen, induced them for a time to relinquish it; and in the mean-time the Grammar or High School was erected. The members of the colleges in these cities, which had been erected more than a century before, were perhaps afraid that the projected university in Edinburgh might rival their fame, and as the metropolis was not yet ranked among the bishopricks of the north, the ecclesiastics looked with a jealous eye on its rising consequence.

In the year 1580, however, the building was begun, and the preceding year a collection of books had been left to the intended university by Mr. Clement Little, as a foundation for a library. A charter of erection was granted by James VI. in 1582; and in 1583 the college was opened for the reception of students. Robert Rollock, of St. Salvador's College, St. Andrew's, being appointed professor of humanity, began teaching in the lower hall of *Hamilton House*, within the precincts of the college, in the month of October that year. Soon after, Rollock, finding the students who resorted to the new university rather indifferently grounded in the ancient languages, recommended as an assistant one Duncan Nairn, to prepare the young students for their initiation into a more perfect knowledge of the Greek and Roman classics.

In 1585 this infant seminary received a temporary check from the plague appearing in Edinburgh which began in May, and
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continued its ravages till the January following. On this occasion great part of the inhabitants left the town, but “nevertheless,” according to Robert Birrel, “ther dyed of peipell wich ver not abill to flee, 14 hundredth and some odd.” Notwithstanding this alarming calamity the magistrates persevered with unwearied diligence in the prosecution of their plan, for in the beginning of the next year the college was inclosed within high walls. A third professor of philosophy being now chosen, Rollock was advanced to the station of principal of the college, on the 29th February 1586.

On the recommendation of the lords of session, the faculty of advocates, and the society of writers to the signet, who each gave a sum for his establishment, a professor of law was now chosen. But instead of giving prelections on law, the new professor taught the humanity class, which fell vacant on the promotion of Rollock to be the head of the college. The annual salary of the professors at this time was 150 merks scots.

In the year 1617, soon after the King's return from the court of St. James's to that of Holyrood-house, he was much pleased at the progress which his favourite university had made during his absence, a period of thirteen years. A public hall, a divinity school, and other apartments were erected, and so much satisfied was the king with the institution that he resolved to honour the university with his presence at a public disputation in philosophy. But the business of the public while he remained at Holyrood-house engrossing entirely his attention, he invited the professors of the college to meet him at Stirling. They accordingly did so in the chapel royal of that town on the 29th of July 1617, and in the presence of the king, the nobility, and many of the learned men of England and Scotland, a disputation took place in which the king himself bore no inconsiderable share. After supper, James invited the professors into his presence, and highly pleased with the ingenuity and learning which had been displayed in the course of the debate, addressed them in a strain of punning panegyric peculiar to that pedantic monarch. His remarks were afterwards turned into miserable rhyme, of which the following are the concluding verses:

“ To their deserved praise have I
 “ Thus played upon their names;
 “ And will this college hence be call'd
 “ *The college of King James.*”

The king accordingly, in a letter to the magistrates of Edinburgh, dated at Paisley the 25th of July 1617, observes that as he “gave the first being and beginning thereunto,” so he

“thoit it worthie to be honoured with” a “name of” his “awin imposition.” The magistrates, therefore, in compliance with the wishes of the royal godfather, called the infant university “The college of King James,” which name it still retains.

The liberality of James and the generosity of private benefactors soon enabled the university to advance rapidly in celebrity. Sir William Nisbet, provost of Edinburgh, in 1619, gave 1000*l.* Scots toward the maintenance of a professor of divinity; and the common council, on the 20th of March 1620, not only nominated a professor for that faculty, but also one for mathematics, and another for physick.

During the reign of the unfortunate Charles I., the chairs in the university seem to have been filled with able teachers. In that troublesome time, when civil discord desolated the country, the names of Andrew Ramsay, to whose Latin poem on the “Creation” Lauder asserted that Milton was much indebted in his “Paradise Lost,” and John Adamson the friend and contemporary of Drummond of Hawthornden, may be mentioned as belonging to the college of Edinburgh.

In the usurpation that followed, if there were not many teachers of merit, yet Robert Leighton, afterwards archbishop of Glasgow, who at this time filled a chair in the university, formed an illustrious exception. Cromwell endowed the university of Edinburgh with an annuity of 200*l.* sterling.

William III. also bestowed on the university an annuity of 300*l.* sterling to be paid out of his treasury and bishops’ rents in Scotland; 100*l.* of which was for the support of a professor of theology, besides the professors of divinity already established, and 200*l.* for twenty exhibitioners at 10*l.* each per annum. Part of this grant, however, was withdrawn by his successor Queen Anne, by which means a professor and fifteen students (exhibitioners) were discharged from the benefaction.

For a long period, little else was taught in the university of Edinburgh besides the dead languages, the divinity and philosophy of the schools, and some branches of the mathematics then in general use. After the Restoration, Revolution, and the accession of the house of Hanover, however, professors of other departments of science were appointed; and in the year 1721 the school of medicine, which has since risen to such unparalleled eminence, was founded. Many excellent professors in all the various departments of science have adorned this university, but its celebrity does not rest merely on the merits of its teachers. These indeed were the causes from which the effect has followed. The persons educated at this seminary, many of whom have made a distinguished figure in the world for

nearly a century past, likewise reflect a high lustre on the place where they were first initiated into the principles of science and true philosophy. And this university has reared many of those who as statesmen, lawyers, divines, physicians, mathematicians, poets, and orators now exhibit on the extended theatre of merit.

The mean appearance which the old buildings of the university exhibited, so ill suited to the fame which it had acquired, was long a subject of general complaint. The difficulties which presented themselves to the projection of a new building however becoming less formidable, a "memorial relating to the university of Edinburgh" was drawn up by one of its professors in the year 1768. In this memorial a proposal for rebuilding the fabric of the college on a regular plan, on the site of the old buildings, was submitted to the consideration of the public; voluntary contributions were to be received from patriotic individuals, and places were to be opened for subscriptions under the management of proper persons, in order to raise a fund sufficient for carrying on the design. This proposal seemed for a time to interest the public; but the means being insufficient to realize the project, it was laid aside till a more favourable opportunity should present itself. This did not occur till after the American war, when the magistrates of the city set on foot a subscription for erecting a new structure, according to a design which had been prepared by the late celebrated architect Mr. Robert Adam. Considerable sums having been thus obtained, part of the old building was pulled down, and the foundation stone of the new college was laid on the 16th of November 1789 by Lord Napier, as grand master mason of Scotland. The building for some time went on rapidly; but the sum collected, though large, being far from sufficient, it was necessarily stopped. The north-west corner is the only part which has been quite completed, but a sum of money having been given by his majesty for forwarding the work, the east front has been nearly finished. The greater part of the building however appears like a vast ruin; and it is probable that unless it is made a national concern, and a grant of money is given by parliament for its completion, it will long remain unfinished.

The students who attend the university of Edinburgh are not, like most others in the kingdom, obliged to adopt any particular mode in their living. They mix promiscuously with the inhabitants of the city, and live in the manner best suited to their circumstances and inclinations. Neither do the rules of the college require that they should appear in any peculiar dress. In the choice of their academical pursuits also they are

left at perfect freedom. The chairs have always been filled by able, often by very eminent men.

The *library* is valuable and extensive. It owed its first beginning to the testamentary donation of Mr. Clement Little, advocate, in 1580. An apartment for holding the books was erected at that time in the church-yard of St. Giles (now the Parliament Square); but the college being founded in the following year, they were removed there in 1582. There are properly two libraries belonging to the University; but one of these consisting mostly of books in divinity, is appropriated solely to the use of the students of theology. In the library are many curious manuscripts and interesting historical documents; among which are the original contract of Mary Queen of Scots with the dauphin of France; a Bohemian protest against the council of Constance for burning John Hus in 1417, with 105 seals of Bohemian and Moravian nobles annexed; and some oriental manuscripts. Here is also kept a fine copy of Fordoun's *Scotichronicon*, beautifully written on vellum. The library room is adorned with several portraits, the chief of which are those of Robert Rollock, the first principal, King James VI., Napier the inventor of logarithms, John Knox, Principal Carstairs, Thomson the author of the *Seasons*, the late celebrated Principal Robertson, and Provost Elder. The college library receives a copy of every book entered at Stationers' Hall. The only other fund for its support is the money paid by students at matriculation; and 5*l.* given by each professor at his admission. The amount of these sums is uncertain, but has been estimated at about 150*l.* *per annum*. The books are under the care of a librarian and an under librarian, who are both appointed by the college. The museum of natural history belonging to the University is small, but the number of specimens is daily increasing. The museum of anatomical preparations is particularly valuable, owing to the exertions of the professors in this department. There is also a collection of anatomical preparations, belonging to the professor of midwifery.

The sessions of the college continue for about six months, beginning in October and November, and ending in April and May. The annual number of students who frequent this seminary is from 1200 to 1400.

The botanic garden and the observatory are establishments well deserving of notice, and the studies of anatomy and medicine are much assisted by lectures delivered at the Royal Infirmary.

EDINBURGH HIGH SCHOOL. In the account given of various towns and cities, notice has been taken of their established schools; the High School of Edinburgh is intitled to particular
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attention, and classes among the national establishments. The first attempt toward its establishment was in 1519, when for its encouragement the magistrates prohibited the books taught in the High School to be made use of in private schools. Before the end of that century, it was established in its present form, and consists of a rector and four masters. Annually in the month of October boys are received into the first class, and remain with the master to whom they first enter during four years; after which they are removed into the rector's class, where they remain one or two years. In this way there are five classes of different years' standing, and each master is occupied only with his own class. Once a week the rector visits one of the classes in rotation, the master of which at the same time visits and examines the rector's class. The masters have trifling salaries; the stated fees are five shillings quarterly, though ten shillings and sixpence are now generally given; and the rector receives quarterly one shilling from all the boys in the four junior classes in addition to the fees of his own class. The school-house consists of five apartments, besides a great-hall where the boys meet for prayers, and a room in which a library is kept. It is a plain stone building, in the middle of a considerable inclosed area. There is an annual examination of the school in the month of August, at which the magistrates of the city, the professors of the university, the clergy, and such men of letters, and relations of the boys, or others as think fit, are allowed to attend. The parents and tutors of the boys are at all times admitted, when they please, to observe their progress.

REVENUE.

IN this division the authority of Sir John Sinclair is principally relied on.

Historians differ materially, that author observes, in the representations they give of the ancient revenue of the Scottish monarchs. Dr. Robertson says that their income was scanty and precarious; and that they were kept in continual indigence, anxiety, and dependence: whereas it is asserted by others, that such accounts are greatly exaggerated; and that the kings of Scotland possessed property and wealth fully adequate to their wants, and at least equal, in proportion to the extent and opulence of their dominions, to those of the other princes of Europe. The sources of their revenues were similar to those of the other kingdoms of Europe at that time. They possessed considerable domains, which on the one hand were perpetually

diminishing by grants to individuals, and a profuse liberality to the church; and on the other, received continual accessions from the confiscations which so often took place in ages of such turbulence and confusion. The sovereigns of Scotland also enjoyed the customs, mines, and fishings, which were not unproductive. Occasionally they possessed valuable property and estates in England; and taxes were sometimes levied on great emergencies for public purposes.

The first tax levied in Scotland, at least so far as can be traced by record, was for the purpose of procuring from the English crown a full and complete renunciation of its claims to the homage and dependency of that country. William the Lion was unfortunately taken prisoner by the English, whilst he was besieging the castle of Alnwick in Northumberland. In order to procure his release, both the king and the people of Scotland became bound to acknowledge the feudal superiority of the English crown; and Henry II. then king of England actually received the homage of William and his subjects; but Richard I. in order to procure money for the holy war, and preserve his dominions in peace during his absence, agreed, in consideration of 10,000 marks, sterling, to abandon, and solemnly to renounce, all claim to the homage of the Scottish crown. It is impossible at present to ascertain whether the sum was levied by voluntary contribution, by the authority of the crown, or by the sanction of parliament. It is only known, that, as it was intended for the general benefit, it was not paid from the private revenue of the sovereign, (too inconsiderable indeed to bear such a burden,) but by the public at large.

In the reign of Alexander III., in 1250, the whole royal income is estimated at 12,000 marks. The crown lands having suffered greatly during the wars between England and Scotland, Robert Bruce obtained from parliament in 1326 a subsidy of the tenth penny for his life. His son, David, being taken prisoner in England, his ransom was fixed at 100,000 marks, which was afterwards increased to 100,000*l.* sterling, which was scrupulously discharged, the last payment being made to Richard II. in 1383.

There still remain two rolls, which, though rather incomplete, furnish evidence sufficiently satisfactory of the revenues and expences of the Scottish crown at the commencement of David's reign. The first is, an account by Reginalde More, lord chamberlain of Scotland, of the receipts and issues from the 9th of December 1329, to the 20th June 1330. The total receipts, including 84*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.* of crown rents, &c. amounted only to 1,685*l.* 16*s.* 2½*d.*, and the expences to 3,436*l.* 8*s.* 5*d.* The

The surplus expenditure consequently was 1,750*l.* 12*s.* 2½*d.* The other contains the receipts and expences from the 14th of March 1330, to the 14th of December 1331. The whole receipts during this period came to 9,415*l.* 13*s.*, the expences to 11,047*l.* 15*s.* 7½*d.*, and thus there was another deficiency to the amount of 1,632*l.* 2*s.* 7½*d.* That there should be such an unfavourable balance is not to be wondered at; for there is included in the account of the expenditure the sum of 6,866*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* in complete payment of 30,000 marks, which by the treaty of peace concluded between England and Scotland, the latter was obliged to pay, to compensate for the damage which the English had recently sustained by the Scottish incursions.

The period to which this account relates exceeding the space of a year, and there being included in it some contributions to aid the crown in discharging its debts to England, renders it difficult to make an exact calculation of the royal income. It appears, however, that there was received in the above period 487*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* from the different towns in the kingdom, and 12*l.* 14*s.* 1½*d.* from that of Lanark. The various feudal prerogatives, for the collecting of which the sheriffs in the different counties were responsible, came to 1,474*l.* 18*s.* 0¼*d.*, making in all 3,769*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* The account was for the space of about twenty-two months; consequently the receipts per month would be 171*l.* 6*s.* 6¼*d.*, and per annum 2,227*l.* 4*s.* 9¼*d.* of the money of Scotland at that time.

As to the real value of this sum, we are enabled to form an idea from the price of different articles being inserted in these accounts. It appears from them, that a ton of wine came only to 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* Scotch; that seven chaldron two bolls of wheat came to 91*l.* 19*s.* 10½*d.* Scotch, which is about 16*s.* 1½*d.* per Scotch boll, and 1*l.* 1*s.* 4½*d.* per English quarter; that the price of a mart or ox, fatted to be killed at the term of Martinmas in November, was 10*s.* or 10*d.* sterling; and the price of a sheep only 14*d.* Scotch. Thus, though the sum was small, the real value of this monarch's income was not inconsiderable.

James the First of Scotland, among his other misfortunes, had to number an unjust detention in England of fourteen years' duration, for the expence of which he was assessed at 40,000*l.* sterling, and obliged to leave twelve sons of the principal families of Scotland as hostages for the payment. To raise this sum, two acts were passed, the one imposing a tax of twelve pence in the pound on all goods and rents, excepting drawing oxen, riding horses, and utensils of house; and the other, the following taxes.

		Scotch money.	
		s.	d.
On each boll of wheat	- - - - -	2	0
On each boll of rye, bear, or pease	- - - - -	1	4
On each boll of oats	- - - - -	0	6
On each cow and her follower, of two years old	- - - - -	6	8
On each wether, fow, &c.	- - - - -	1	0
On each drawing or ploughing ox, of and above three years old	- - - - -	6	0
On each wild mare and her follower, of three years old	- - - - -	10	0

It is not to be wondered at that such taxes, imposed upon a people whose principal wealth consisted in their cattle, should occasion much clamour; and consequently that it was found impossible to persevere in levying it. With regard to the Scottish hostages (as we have no account of their being released) it is supposed that they either died in England, or were dismissed, when, in consequence of the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, both parties found it necessary to cultivate the friendship of Scotland.

The poverty of the crown in the reign of James II. was so very great, that it occasioned in the words of an old act, "the povertie of the realme in general, and manie uther inconvenients are there throw, the quhilkis were too lang to expreme." To remedy so great an evil, it was enacted, that the whole of the customs of Scotland should be paid to the king alone; and such as had pensions out of that branch of the revenue were to be otherwise satisfied. Lands of considerable extent also were unalienably annexed to the crown; and it was declared to be illegal to dispose of them without the consent of the estates. Such regulations have often been ordained; and in every country resumptions have been practised. But public domains can hardly be retained by any law, however strict, from the selfish intrigues of courtiers. Even in republics, those who are in power are equally rapacious and successful.

There is a curious account extant, of the public revenue of Scotland, in the reign of James III. as made up for the year 1474, by John, bishop of Glasgow, then treasurer. The receipts for compositions of charters, wards, marriages, reliefs, escheats, remissions, &c. amounted to 3,240*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.* Scotch. In the discharge it is stated that the expence for the king's person amounted to 118*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*, that of the queen to 113*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*, and that of the prince to 41*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*, making in all for the expence of the royal family 273*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Scotch. The balance being 2,967*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Scotch, it is probable was applied to the maintenance of the household and to national purposes.

purposes. But the real value of such an income ought not to be estimated according to modern ideas. Its importance ought to be calculated, not from its nominal amount, but from what it could then purchase; which, according to the prices then established, would be about 10,000 oxen.

During the long minority of James V. (who succeeded to the crown when scarcely two years of age) the royal property and income were so much wasted or embezzled by those who governed the kingdom, that when he came of age he found himself immersed in the greatest difficulties. Even the royal palaces were stripped of their furniture, and hastening to ruin: nor was there any money remaining in the exchequer. As an expedient for procuring wealth, James hesitated whether he should attack the clergy or the nobles; each tendered gifts to avert the danger from their class, and advised the king to direct it toward the other, but his death freed both parties from their apprehensions.

Considerable quantities of gold ore were found about this time, at Crawford Moor in Clydesdale; miners from Germany were employed to dig for and collect it; and when James in 1537, was married at Paris to the daughter of Francis I., mention is made of a number of covered cups filled with pieces of gold, the native produce of Scotland, which that monarch distributed among the guests who were present at the nuptial ceremony.

Among the curious and important events which distinguish the reign of Mary, a plan attempted to be enforced by the queen regent, her mother, during her minority, of imposing a permanent tax upon land, and maintaining a standing army, is not the least remarkable. The greater nobles had so far degenerated from the spirit of their ancestors, and dreaded so much the resentment of the court, that in a general assembly of bishops, earls, abbots, and lords, who called themselves lords of the secret council, the plan was approved of; but about three hundred of the lesser barons assembled in a body, and represented to the regent the disgrace, the impolicy, and the injustice of such a measure. The wealth of the clergy relieved the difficulties of the crown, and a portion of it, when confiscated, was applied in providing for the maintenance of the Protestant ministers, who enjoyed as yet no certain means of subsistence. The whole of the ecclesiastical revenues in Scotland at that time amounted to 217,473*l.* 13*s.* 10½*d.* Scotch, of which the third, or 72,491*l.* 6*s.* 7½*d.* was appropriated to these public purposes. Mary unwillingly consented to the proposal; and her attachment to the religious and political principles of the court of Rome being well known, notwithstanding

standing her countenancing so obnoxious a measure, she received not long after a papal subsidy of 8,000 crowns.

During this reign, many odious modes of raising money were adopted. Some towns, suspected of disaffection to the queen, were fined, and heavy taxes were levied on the boroughs in general. An attempt was made to compel the citizens of Edinburgh to lend money to the crown; but they resisted so unprecedented an exaction, until sufficient security was given for the sum that was borrowed.

At the accession of James VI. the public treasury was so much exhausted, that it could not furnish the money necessary to equip some vessels for attacking the infamous Earl of Bothwell, who had taken shelter in the Orkneys, where he subsisted by piracy; and he might have remained in the undisturbed possession of those islands for some time, had not James Douglas Earl of Morton defrayed the charges required for so necessary an armament.

The king's affairs were so embarrassed that he thankfully accepted an annual pension of 5,000*l.* sterling from Elizabeth. And although fond of the splendour of the hierarchy, yet he was prevailed upon to give his assent to an act by which the whole landed possessions of the church were annexed to the crown. This great resource was however rendered of little avail by the profuseness of James to his favourites, and in consequence of all former grants having at the same time been confirmed.

The year 1597 was distinguished by the greatest tax that had ever been levied in Scotland. The sum of 200,000 marks was raised for the purpose of sending ambassadors to foreign courts, to obtain the assistance of the continental powers, should it be necessary, to insure James's succession to the English crown: of which 100,000 marks were to be paid from the ancient property of the church; 66,666 marks 8 shillings and 10 pennies by the barons and freeholders; and 33,333 marks 4 shillings and 6 pennies by the boroughs. Another tax was granted, in 1621, to continue for four years, of 30 shillings yearly, on every pound land of old extent, and of the twentieth penny of all interest due on bonds, bills, and other securities.

There is an account extant of the revenue of the crown of Scotland, in the reign of Charles I., but it is impossible to ascertain the real value of the income, from the variety of articles of which it consists; for it contains not only the money received, but also the wheat, bear, malt, oats, oatmeal, mutton, capons, poultry, cunnings, (rabbits,) doves, onions, geese, salmon, herrings, butter, kids, martins, stirks, &c. paid to

to the crown. From the same manuscript it appears, that anno 1634 the pensions and gifts on the Scotch establishment amounted to the following sum.

Pensions payable in money	-	-	£ 302,859	Scotch.
275 chaldrons of victual converted into			32,300	
Total			-	<u>335,159</u>

There were also other considerable burdens; and the whole was so heavy a load, that his Scottish ministers recommended to Charles, either to enforce the act that had been made for the resumption of the crown lands, or to practise more economy.

The principal branch of the revenue of the crown at this time was the customs, which were let to farm, and produced, in 1628, the sum of 133,666*l.* 13*s.* Scotch money; of which 74,666*l.* 13*s.* were paid upon the import of wines; and 59,000*l.* on all other goods brought into the kingdom.

The only parliamentary tax in this reign was granted in 1663: it was thirty shillings Scotch on every pound land of old extent; and the sixteenth penny of all interest for the space of six years; but it is not known what sum it produced. On the subjugation of Scotland by the arms of Cromwell, the nation experienced the rigours and grievous burdens of a military government. Before the usurpation, it is probable that the income of Scotland could not exceed 40,000*l.* sterling per annum: whereas after that event, the following sums were annually exacted:

Income of Scotland, as laid before Parliament, 7th April, 1659.

	Sterling.		
By assessments of 6,000 <i>l.</i> a month	-	-	£ 72,000 0 0
By the income of the property of the crown, and the rents annually paid into the Exchequer	-	-	5,324 18 5½
By casualties and uncertain rents	-	-	576 3 5
By composition of signatures	-	-	929 6 0
By customs, inward and outward, and excise of goods imported	-	-	12,500 0 0
By the duty on sea-coal	-	-	2,216 5 4
By salt duties	-	-	1,674 9 5
Excise on beer, ale, and aquæ-vitæ	-	-	47,444 13 4
Forfeiture of smuggled goods	-	-	595 10 11½
Interest of money appropriated for the augmentation of the judges' salaries	-	-	391 5 0
Total	-	-	<u>143,652 11 11</u>

The expences of Scotland at that time were as follows :

To the army	-	-	£ 270,643	4	2
Salaries of the council and other officers	-	-	9,410	11	0
Contingent charges of the council	-	-	350	0	0
Salaries to the court of Exchequer	-	-	1,833	4	2
Contingent charges of the Exchequer	-	-	80	10	2½
Salaries to the courts of justice	-	-	4,246	4	0
Contingent charges of the courts of justice	-	-	485	12	0
To the commissioners of excise and customs	-	-	4,177	9	6
Their contingent expences	-	-	771	9	4
Salaries to the court of admiralty	-	-	304	8	8
Its contingent expences	-	-	167	14	1
Charges of an hospital	-	-	587	10	6
Fire and candles to the army	-	-	5,297	19	4
Pensions and other temporary contingencies	-	-	8,915	15	9

307,271 12 8½

The revenues of Scotland came per annum to 143,652 11 11

The balance consequently was 163,619 0 9½

Thus it appears that Scotland, under a military and despotic government, instead of yielding a revenue adequate to its expences, was every year considerably deficient.

In the first parliament which Charles II. assembled, acts were passed, by which, besides the ordinary crown revenues, 480,000*l.* Scotch, or 40,000*l.* sterling, were granted during the king's life, partly to be levied by duties on the importation of foreign commodities, and partly by monthly rates upon the towns and counties. In addition to this annuity, the states in 1665 imposed a tax of forty shillings yearly, for the space of five years, upon every pound land of old extent belonging to the temporality, and in the same proportion upon the lands belonging to the church, and the different boroughs in the kingdom, to assist the crown in the prosecuting the Dutch war.

During this reign, the military mode of levying money, by quartering soldiers in the houses of those who were deficient in the regular payment of their taxes, which had been first practised in 1649, during the grand rebellion, was re-enacted and too frequently practised.

In 1685, eight months' cess, as it was called, payable half-yearly, amounting to 576,000*l.* Scotch, or 48,000*l.* sterling, was granted by parliament during the life of James the Second.

In the reign of William III. the Parliament of Scotland voted land taxes for several years, amounting, in the whole, to

to 603,311*l.* sterling; a poll tax proceeding gradually from small tradesmen who paid 4*s.* 2*d.* per annum, to dukes who were assessed at 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; hearth-money was also imposed in Scotland, though reprobated in England, as a substitute for the assessment on the interest of money, which after repeated trials had been found untenable.

The revenue of Scotland at the Union consisted of the following particulars;

1. Crown rents which produced	-	£ 5,500
2. Feudal casualties	-	3,000
3. The customs	- - -	30,000
4. The excise	- - -	33,500
5. The post office	- - -	1,194
6. Coinage impositions	-	1,500
7. The land tax	- - -	36,000
Total		<u>- 110,694</u>

To put both nations on an equal footing, it was agreed that 12,000*l.* of additional land tax should be levied in Scotland; and it was stated by the Scotch commissioners, that when peace was concluded, the customs would probably yield 20,000*l.*, the excise, if properly collected, 16,500*l.*, and the post office 806*l.* per annum, in addition to their former produce, making in all 160,000*l.*; but the actual revenue at the Union, free of all charges, was only 110,694*l.* The debts of Scotland, however, were proportionably inconsiderable, being only about 160,000*l.* By the 15th article of the treaty of Union, the equivalent that Scotland was to receive for such branches of the customs and excise levied in that country, as were appropriated to pay off the debts of England, contracted previously to the Union, was fixed at 398,085*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* It was specially provided, however, by the said article, that any addition to the customs and excise, beyond the sum of 63,500*l.* per annum, should either be dedicated to public purposes in Scotland, or that an additional equivalent should be paid to that country, in proportion to the increase of those branches of the revenue; at least in so far as they are applicable to the payment of the debts contracted by England before the two nations were incorporated together. It has been asserted, that the customs of England were over-rated, in order to render the equivalent as little as possible. There is reason to believe that large quantities of goods were, before Midsummer 1706, brought to England, and afterwards carried to Scotland, in order to get the drawback, and were fraudulently

fraudulently re-imported into England after the Union, duty free.

The progress of the revenue of Scotland being included, since the Union, in that of England, does not require any particular illustration. As now paid it may be considered under two heads. First, the hereditary or private property of the crown. Secondly, the public income of the country.

There are various branches of the public revenue of Scotland to which the crown of Scotland lays claim as its hereditary and private property, more especially certain crown rents and feudal casualties; the rents of certain lands formerly possessed by the bishops in Scotland; the new subsidy of the customs; a share of the seizures made by custom-house officers; a share of the fines and forfeitures in the excise; the hereditary and temporary excise; some coinage duties; together with the produce of certain royal prerogatives.

As to the revenue which the nation at large derives from North Britain, as the same taxes with hardly any exceptions exist in Scotland as in England, the income of this part of the island may be considered under the same general heads; namely, customs, excise, stamps, and incidents, together with the taxes which are annually imposed instead of being permanently granted.

The income derived from these several sources in the year which ended on the fifth of January 1813, was,

Customs	-	-	-	£ 857,744	8	2
Excise	-	-	-	1,726,900	14	8½
Property tax	-	-	-	966,790	14	4
Land tax	-	-	-	24,551	10	4¼
Assessed taxes	-	-	-	412,977	19	11¾
Stamps	-	-	-	348,523	2	5
Post office	-	-	-	167,877	18	0
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	14,526	9	8¼
			Gross	-	4,519,892	17 7¼
Off charges of management and compensations and allowances to superannuated and retired officers				-	364,293	13 8
			Nett	-	4,155,599	3 11¾

The collection of these several imposts is regulated on a plan exactly similar to that adopted in England. There is a board of
of

of customs, with subordinate custom-houses in various ports; a board of excise and salt duties, with proper officers distributed through the country; a tax office, and a post office.

TRADE.

IN the description already given of the several counties of Scotland, mention has been made of the products, animal, vegetable, and mineral, which by the aid of industry may be rendered profitable to the people in the way of trade. Commerce was not in early times the favourite pursuit of this nation, although it was never utterly neglected, and occasionally promoted with all the vigour of government, and the eagerness resulting from a general sense of advantage. The calamities arising from war, and the military spirit diffused among the people damped the zeal of commercial enterprise until a settled form of society permitted the inhabitants of Scotland to use the blessings of their soil, and avail themselves of their industry and sagacity. Since that period the progress of England in the paths of commercial prosperity has not been more marked than that of Scotland; and the benefits of industry, integrity, and capital have been fully recognized and abundantly enjoyed.

FISHERIES. Scotland is so favourably situated for all sorts of fisheries that a portion of industry has always been employed in that direction, and many writers have anxiously represented to government the propriety of extending, by bounties and all other means, the facility of applying to this mode of industry and source of profit. It is surmised, but apparently without sufficient authority, that at a very remote period indeed, early in the ninth century, the people of the Netherlands supplied themselves with salted fish from Scotland. In the twelfth century, however, the importance of this undertaking was well understood, protected by remission of duties, and carried to such an extent that the Frith of Forth was frequently covered with boats, manned by English, Scottish, and Belgic fishermen. In the thirteenth century, Aberdeen was famous for the curing of fish. In subsequent times ordinances were issued, statutes enacted, corporations formed, and public money allotted for the extension and encouragement not only of the herring, cod, and other fisheries for supply of food, but also of the whale fishery. Between the years 1751 and 1776 the herring fishery increased from two vessels whose tons were 148, whose crews were 33 men and boys, and whose capture consisted only of 213 barrels of fish,

fish, to 294 vessels bearing 14,193 tons, having as their crews 3,365 men and boys, and bringing home 51,863 barrels of fish. This advance was much accelerated by a timely bounty, which in 1776 exceeded 21,000*l.*, but nevertheless, during the American war, owing to the increased price of barrels, salt, naval stores, and seamen's wages, the business rapidly declined, and in 1782 only 147 buffes, making 7,291 tons, manned with 1,067 persons, and producing 13,457 barrels of fish, were employed. Since that time the business has been prosecuted with increased vigour, establishments have been formed in advantageous positions for curing the fish taken, but still, in the opinion of well informed writers, much, almost every thing, remains to be done; it is even supposed that the value of fish taken, consumed, and exported, exclusive of the whale fishery, might be made to exceed ten millions sterling.

In the description of the several counties, notice has been taken of their commercial productions, and of various establishments for the manufacture of metals and of linen, cotton, and other stuffs. The principal canals are enumerated in a general list in the second volume of this work.

SHIPPING. In the year which ended on the 5th of January 1813, the shipping entered inwards was 3,403 vessels, burthen 318,306 tons, and employing 20,792 men; the ships cleared outwards were 3,462, burthen 329,664 tons, and they had 22,423 men.

BANKS AND BANKERS. In Scotland are three chartered banks, called the Bank of Scotland, the Royal Bank, and the British Linen Company; their united capitals are estimated by Mr. Colquhoun at three millions and a half.

The Bank of Scotland, now called the Old Bank, was created by an act of parliament in 1695. The company were empowered to raise a joint stock of 1,200,000*l.* Scots, or 100,000*l.* sterling. Their affairs are managed by a governor, deputy governor, and twenty-four directors. The capital stock is divided into shares, of which the smallest is 1,000*l.* Scots, and the largest 20,000*l.* In the election of office bearers, the qualifications requisite are, that the governor must be possessed of at least 8,000*l.* in the stock of the company, the deputy-governor, 6,000*l.* and 3,000*l.* for each of the directors. Proprietors who have a share of 1,000*l.* of stock are entitled to vote in the election of managers; and those who have stock above that sum have a vote for every 1,000*l.*

In the year 1774, this company obtained an act to enlarge their capital to 2,400,000*l.* Scots, or 200,000*l.* sterling, and it was provided that no one individual should possess in the whole more than 40,000*l.* in stock, and the qualification for the offices of

of governor and directors was doubled. In 1784, 1792, and 1794, they obtained similar powers, and their capital is now a million sterling.

This company has established branches in every considerable town in Scotland, excepting Glasgow, which, in consequence of an amicable adjustment, to avoid rivalry, is left to the royal bank. By agreement the latter has a branch at Glasgow, and and no branch in any other town in Scotland.

The Bank was established in a house down a narrow lane at the south side of that part of the High Street called the Lawn Market; but, at a great expence, the company erected a magnificent structure, which is situated to the northward of the High Street, in full view of Prince's Street. At the commencement of the building, very serious difficulties were experienced, in consequence of the same circumstance which formerly annoyed the architect of the North Bridge; it was found that the whole earth on that side of the ridge on which the High Street stands was not natural, but had been brought thither when the ground in the neighbourhood was originally laid out for building. The consequence was, that after cutting down the side of the hill in search of solid ground for a foundation to an immense depth, the hill above gave way, and overwhelmed the foundation that had been cleared out. The rubbish was no sooner removed than the side of the hill again gave way repeatedly; so that the task of digging the foundation was several times renewed. In the mean while, the earth above, to some distance toward the High Street, began to open. Some very lofty buildings, deprived of the support which they had received from the weight of earth adjoining to their foundations, next began to give way. The inhabitants removed, and the houses were taken down. A sufficiently firm foundation of natural clay having been at last obtained, the building was rapidly urged. It was reared in the most solid manner. Enormous quantities of mortar and massy stones were buried, and a fabric carried upwards, capable of resisting the incumbent weight of the mountain. It forms, upon the whole, a beautiful and most superb fabric.

The Royal Bank. By the articles of union, Scotland was declared to be liable to the same duties which were levied by way of customs or excise in England, and these duties having been appropriated for the discharge of debts contracted by England before the Union, Scotland was to receive certain sums as an equivalent. The proprietors of these sums, to the extent of 248,550*l.* sterling, were erected into a body corporate, under the name of the *Equivalent Company*; and obtained a royal charter, empowering such of them as inclined to subscribe their shares

in the joint stock for that purpose, to carry on the business of banking: these subscribers having contributed a capital of 111,000*l.* were in 1727 erected into a body corporate, to be called, "*The Royal Bank of Scotland*," and the management of their affairs declared to be in a governor, deputy-governor, nine ordinary and nine extraordinary directors. Their capital in 1738 was encreased to 150,000*l.* In consequence of the jealous and narrow policy, which till of late years was so common among commercial companies, when the Royal Bank was first erected, that company purchased up all the notes of the Bank of Scotland which they could obtain, and made such a run upon this bank, as reduced it to considerable difficulties. To avoid such distresses for the future, the Bank of Scotland, on the 9th of November 1730, began to issue 5*l.* notes, payable on demand, or 5*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* six months after their being presented for payment, in the option of the bank. On the 12th of December 1732, the Royal Bank began to issue notes with a similar clause. The other banking companies in Scotland found it convenient to follow the example. Bank notes, framed with these optional clauses, and for the most trifling sums, even 5*s.* sterling, were generally issued and currently accepted in payment, so that silver was, in a manner, banished; but an act of parliament in 1765 prohibited all promissory notes payable to the bearer under 1*l.* sterling; and declared void all the optional clauses.

The British Linen Company, with a capital of 100,000*l.*, was incorporated by royal charter in 1746, with a view to encourage the manufacture of linen in Scotland. By the constitution of this company, its affairs are declared to be under the management of a governor, deputy-governor, and five directors. In a department separate from the linen trade it carries on the business of banking, and issues promissory notes like the two former companies.

BANKERS. The banking business, according to Mr. Colquhoun, is carried on by

Forty-three banking establishments, where there are three and upwards in the principal towns.

Twenty-nine banking establishments, where there are one and two in the inferior towns.

But as a large proportion of these are branches of the chartered banks, whose capitals are already stated, the private capitals may be estimated at about 800,000*l.*

THE METROPOLIS.

HISTORY. EDINBURGH is one of the most ancient cities in the north of Europe ; its name, as already has been observed, has defied the researches of etymologists, and its origin is not correctly ascertained by historians or antiquaries. Some circumstances tend to involve in peculiar obscurity the history of this city. It is situated in the Roman province called Valentia ; which included the territory between the two celebrated Roman walls of Hadrian on the south, which crossed the island from Newcastle to Carlisle, and the wall of Antoninus on the north, from Carriden on the Forth to Dunblane on the river Clyde. This territory also, at a subsequent period, belonged to the Picts, and was conquered from them by the Scots under Kenneth II. As Edinburgh is situated within fifty-four miles of the English border, its neighbourhood was the scene of many sanguinary conflicts, during several centuries. It is probable, that the singular rudeness of the territory on which Edinburgh is situated, with its precipices and abrupt declivities, which render it extremely inconvenient for an extensive capital, were the very circumstances which originally led to its establishment, as, by rendering it of easy defence, they contributed to its preservation in very barbarous times ; at least there is little doubt that the most rugged part of it, that is to say the castle, is the most ancient. The oldest appellation given to this fortress, is 'The Castle of Agnes's Hill.' It was likewise distinguished by the appellation of *Castrum Puellarum*, or the 'Maidens' Castle,' supposed from its being the residence of the daughters of the kings of the Picts till the time of their marriage. The name of the city has also been ascribed to Edwin, a Saxon prince of Northumberland, who began his reign in 617, and conquered much territory from the Picts.

In the early periods, the annals of Edinburgh frequently record the injuries inflicted in the invasions of the English, who sometimes possessed, sometimes ravaged the city, and once the castle was destroyed by the Scots themselves, who doubted their ability to prevent its being occupied by the enemy. In proportion, however, as the independence of Scotland became established, and the hostile incursions of the English were suspended, Edinburgh gradually rose into consideration. Its situation in the south of Scotland, at a sufficient distance from the English border to secure it from surprise, while it was near enough to be accounted a proper position for superintending the defence of the kingdom, probably contributed to render it

a royal residence, and laid a foundation for its becoming the ordinary seat of government. The kings of Scotland dwelt in it; parliaments were frequently held there, and in every respect it grew toward the close of the fourteenth century to be considered as the capital of the country. Hence the Scottish princes endeavoured to render themselves popular with the citizens of Edinburgh, and bestowed on them many privileges. Robert III. permitted all the burghesses to build houses within the castle, probably as a place of retreat against hostile invasion. In 1329, Robert I. granted to them the harbour and mills of Leith, but it would appear that His Majesty was not considered as proprietor of the banks of the river, or of the shore adjoining to the harbour; as the inhabitants were under the necessity of purchasing from Sir Robert Logan of Restalrig, the banks or waste piece of ground extending from the walls of the houses to the river, to be converted into wharfs or quays; with a right of making ways or roads through the lands of Restalrig, keeping certain shops, and erecting granaries within the town of Leith. James II., in 1450, empowered the corporation to fortify the city by surrounding it with a wall; and to defray the expence by a tax on the inhabitants. The original wall began at the foot of the north-east rock of the castle, (where the ruins of a small fortress are still to be seen,) and proceeded eastward along the foot of the hill adjoining to the north loch, till it came nearly opposite to the head of the High Street. From this place to the present North Bridge, the city was defended by the North Loch, but from that point to the head of the Canongate the kind of defence is unknown. From the North Loch, opposite to the upper end of the High Street, the wall advanced southward to the summit of the hill, where it was intersected by a gate of communication between the town and the castle. From this gate the wall proceeded along the southern brow of the hill, pointing to the south-east, to the middle of what is now called the *West Bow*, from the arched gate which was anciently placed there; thence it proceeded still eastward along the face of the hill, till it reached what is now called *Gray's Close*; from which it crossed the High Street obliquely to Leith Wynd. Here a continued range of houses, and afterwards a wall, completed the defence.

After the town had been fortified in the reign of James II., the citizens, either in consequence of increasing numbers, or of a passion which seems still to adhere to them for having houses without the borough, very speedily erected the Cowgate, which in these times was accounted a magnificent street, and was inhabited by persons of the first distinction. After the
battle

battle of Flodden, the Cowgate, with the lanes adjoining, and the broad street at the western extremity, called the Grass Market, were included within the city by the new wall. This new wall is to be seen commencing upon the south-east side of the rock of the Castle; thence it descends obliquely across the valley to the south, where the gate left in it, received the appellation of the *West Port*; then it ascends to the brow of the southern ridge, and turning eastward, it proceeds along the north side of the gardens of Heriot's Hospital and the Grayfriars' Church-yard to Bristo Port; and from Bristo Port, advancing in the same direction, it still incloses the buildings of Argyle Square. It has been pulled down to make way for the buildings of the New College; but it still remains to the south of the Royal Infirmary and the High School. At the Pleasance, that is to say, at the foot of the Cowgate, it turns northward toward the eastern extremity of the most ancient wall. Thus it appears, that the wall reared after the battle of Flodden was chiefly, or rather solely, constructed for the purpose of defending the Grass Market, together with the Cowgate and its adjoining lanes. At a subsequent period, in 1620, the magistrates purchased about ten acres of ground on the south-west of the city, on the summit of the southern ridge where Heriot's Hospital and the Charity Work-house now stand; and an additional wall was built to include this newly purchased territory within the limits of the city's fortifications.

As Edinburgh continued from this period till the Union to be the metropolis of Scotland, its history is the history of the kingdom, and it is not therefore intended to detail that which does not properly belong to this work.

DESCRIPTION. Edinburgh is situated in $55^{\circ}57'$ of north latitude, and in $3^{\circ}14'$ of longitude west from London. It stands near the centre of the northern boundary of the country, and within two miles of the town and harbour of Leith; toward which, by the extension of its buildings, it is rapidly approaching; and which, for this and other reasons, may be considered as one of its suburbs.

It is extremely difficult to give by description a correct idea of the city of Edinburgh, on account of the strange irregularity of the territory upon which it is situated, and of the great diversity of the form and aspect of the buildings of which it now consists.

The Frith of Forth, adjoining to Edinburgh on the north, is from five to seven miles in breadth. Eastward from Edinburgh and Leith is the bay of Musselburgh, which is the largest bay in this estuary or frith, and advances several miles southward to the town or village from which it derives its

name. The harbour of Leith is situated in an angle, or a sort of peninsula, formed by the ordinary line of the Frith of Forth on the north, and by Musselburgh bay on the east. Edinburgh looks downwards upon the sea on two sides, and stands at nearly an equal distance from Musselburgh bay on the east, and from the general line of the Frith of Forth on the north. From Leith, and the whole shore of the bay of Musselburgh, the country ascends gradually and regularly westward toward the centre and northern parts of Edinburgh, which is from the distance of two to three miles. Between the southern quarter of the city and Musselburgh bay, the mountainous tract called *Arthur's Seat* is interposed. At the harbour of Leith, the small river called the Water of Leith falls into the sea. To the north-west of Leith, along the shore, the country is regular and beautiful; its form is triangular, having the Frith of Forth on the north, on the south the water of Leith, diverging from the Frith, and running like most Scottish rivers and even rivulets, in a deep bed with elevated banks. To the westward, this territory very gradually and slowly continues to widen, and at the same time to ascend, for some miles, till the southern part of it is crossed by a narrow and lofty ridge in the form of a cock's comb, called *Corstorphine Hills*, and the rest of it begins to slope downwards to the river Amon, on the north-west.

From the Water of Leith, two miles westward from the harbour, the country to the south rapidly ascends to a very considerable height. The ascent terminates in a horizontal ridge, which runs from east to west, and is about three hundred feet above the level of the sea. Along the summit of this ridge is situated what is usually called the *New Town* of Edinburgh; which from its elevated position is enabled to overlook, toward the north, the Frith of Forth, with the opposite bold coast of Fife; and on this side the beautiful intervening territory, which is well cultivated and adorned with numerous villas.

To the south of the ridge on which the New Town stands is a deep valley; southward from which suddenly ascends another ridge or long hill, upon which is placed the Old Town, or the most important part of the ancient city of Edinburgh. This ridge, whose highest point is on the west, terminates in that quarter in a precipitous and lofty rock, on which the castle is placed; the hill gradually descends to the east. On the ridge, formed by its summit, the High Street is built, which terminates on the east at the valley on which the palace of Holyrood-house stands. From the High Street, along its whole length from the castle to the palace, successive narrow lanes descend down the steep sides of the hill; those on the

north terminate in the valley which divides the New from the Old Town, and which, from its anciently having been covered with water, is termed the North Loch; on the south, the lanes from the High Street descend into a deep and narrow valley, in which is the street called the Cowgate, running parallel to the High Street, and the remainder of this low ground, toward the west, is occupied by the broad and ancient street called the Grass Market. Toward the east it has not been built upon.

From the Cowgate other lanes ascend toward the south, where a third long ridge, covered with buildings, runs parallel to the High Street; but which is not like it, formed into a precipitate hill, except toward the east, where it approaches Salisbury Craigs. On the south it descends gradually into an extensive valley, where was anciently the South Loch, or Borough Loch; but which being drained, is now called Hope Park, or the Meadow. The notion at one time entertained that the Cowgate had been covered with water, is shewn by Maitland to be erroneous.

The city of Edinburgh thus stands on three parallel ridges; two of which are of considerable breadth at the summit, and run in nearly a horizontal direction from east to west. The central ridge, however, is so narrow on its summit, as in most places barely to leave room for the breadth of the High Street. This ridge also differs from the other two in this respect, that instead of running horizontally like them from east to west, its western point is a lofty fortified rock, seen by travellers at a great distance, while it gradually descends eastward, till at the distance of a mile, it sinks into a plain.

To the southward, the country gradually rises with a great variety of surface, and the view is terminated by lofty mountains, which at one point are scarcely five miles distant. On the west the territory is more level; so that from Edinburgh Castle a fine plain is seen richly cultivated, and stretching to the distance of fourteen miles, where the country gradually ascends, till it forms the elevated tract which looks down upon the course of the river Clyde and the city of Glasgow.

On the east, the vicinity of Edinburgh is so irregular and rugged, as irresistibly to suggest the idea that this has once been the scene of some great natural convulsion. Three hills are chiefly worthy of notice; they consist, like that on which the High Street stands, of rugged precipices, with an elevated summit toward the west, from which they descend or trail along, in a gradual manner, eastward. The lowest of these is the Calton Hill.

The horizontal ridge of the New Town terminates suddenly

on the east, opposite to the middle of the High Street. The territory on the north east of the New Town consists of a gradual descent toward Leith; and that on the south-east, after passing a sudden chasm, is occupied by the Calton Hill, which abruptly rises aloft, and exhibits in that quarter a front of precipitous and broken rocks, which incroach upon the North Loch, and press toward the Old Town or centre of the city. On their summit is an observatory; on one side is the Bridewell; and on the brow of the hill is a public walk, which commands an extensive view of a group of the most interesting objects which the world can exhibit—a fertile country, a great city, a fortified castle, a crowded sea-port, a royal palace, and a great extent of ocean; the whole diversified by rugged rocks and precipices close at hand, and by the lofty mountains, which border upon the western Highlands, which form the distant horizon.

The ridge to the southward of the High Street, or Old Town of Edinburgh, terminates, like that on the north, in a sudden chasm on the east, beyond which a lofty precipice ascends. Here, however, every thing is on a grander scale; the rocks are more lofty, and are succeeded by others, which form a singular tract of mountainous territory in the vicinity of the palace. The chief divisions of these hills are called *Salisbury Craigs* and *Arthur's Seat*. The former, a semi-circular precipice of great height and extent, is the most westerly, and is supposed to derive its name from an Earl of Salisbury who accompanied Edward III. in an expedition.

Arthur's Seat, to the eastward of Salisbury Craigs, consists of two extensive hills; one of which rising into a lofty peak overlooks the surrounding country, and is 819 feet above the low water-mark at Leith.

The three ridges on which the city is built are connected by bridges built across the low grounds which divide the whole town, or central ridge, from the New Town on the north, and from the southern district on the opposite side.

In consequence of its being divided in the way now mentioned, as it were into three distinct cities, built upon separate parallel eminences, divided from each other by intervening vallies, there is no city of its extent which is less perplexing to a stranger, or where he is less likely to lose his way, than Edinburgh. After the slightest inspection, he cannot possibly mistake one division for another; because the Old Town, the New Town, and the southern district, are each of moderate extent, and have no resemblance to each other.

The western part of the central division of Edinburgh rises aloft, and overlooks the whole city. At the summit or precipitous

pitous extremity the castle is situated, consisting of an area of about six English acres. Before the invention of artillery it must have appeared impregnable; on the north, the west, and the south it appears inaccessible, being on a rock of 300 feet in height, which is at many places absolutely perpendicular. On the east, the only quarter from which it is accessible, it is separated from the buildings of the city by a kind of glacis or space of about 350 feet in length and 300 in breadth, called the Castle Hill, which also commands a prospect of the city and its whole environs, with the sea, and the opposite coast of Fife. At the western termination of the Castle Hill is the outer barrier of the castle, beyond which is a dry ditch, with a draw-bridge and gate; the whole commanded by a half moon mounted with twelve and eighteen pounders. Within the gate is a guard room; beyond which, on a road winding upward, toward the north, are two gateways, the first of which is very strong, and has two port-cullises. Beyond the inner gateway is a battery, mounted with brass guns; near which are store-houses for gun-carriages and other implements of artillery. On the north is a grand store-room and arsenal, which, together with the other magazines in the fort, are capable of containing 30,000 stand of arms. In addition to those already mentioned, are some other batteries at different points of the circumference of the rampart or wall by which the brow of the rock is encircled; but the fortifications correspond with none of the rules of art, being built according to the irregular form of the precipice on which they stand. So that to this day the chief strength of the castle may be considered as consisting in its height and inaccessible situation. The highest part of the castle, which is towards the south-east, consists of a number of houses in the form of a square, affording a parade for exercise. The buildings are chiefly laid out in barracks for the officers.

High Street. At the eastern extremity of the glacis of the castle the *High Street* of Edinburgh begins, and continues without interruption downward along the ridge of the hill to the palace of Holyrood-house. The upper part of this street is about 140 feet above the level of the North Loch, and almost 180 feet above Holyrood-house. The street from the castle-gate to the palace-gate is 5,570 feet. The descent is regular, and it runs all the way nearly in a right line; at the same time the bendings are sufficient to interrupt the view from one end to the other; and the view is farther broken by some edifices which are still suffered to encroach upon the street. The High Street receives various appellations to distinguish different parts of it; near the castle it is termed the *Castle Hill*; some-

somewhat lower down, the *Lawn Market*, from a branch of trade formerly carried on there; at the lower end of the *Lawn Market*, where stands the ancient Episcopal Cathedral, or Church of St. Giles, the street for a considerable distance is called, by way of distinction, the *High Street*; this being the most frequented and public part of it; further down the hill, at a place where the city wall anciently crossed it, the appellation of the *Canongate* is given, and continues downward to the palace. From the upper end of the *Lawn Market* a street descends the hill southward, in a winding direction, to the *Grafs Market* and *Cowgate*. In ancient times, one of the gates of the city was in the middle of this street. The gate was covered by a stone arch, termed in the Scottish dialect a *bow*; and hence the street receives the appellation to this day of the *West Bow*.

From the middle of the *Lawn Market* toward the north, a communication with the *New Town* has of late years been opened, by means of a great mound of earth, which crosses the *North Loch*. At the lower end of the *Lawn Market*, the street is embarrassed by an old prison, and some houses called *Lucken-booths*, which occupy the middle of it: but these are beginning to be removed. Adjoining to them is a small square, called the *Parliament-close*, to the south of the street. The sides of the square are formed by the cathedral of St. Giles on the north; on the south and west, partly by the parliament-house. The remainder of the square, which is not extensive, is completed by lofty private buildings of hewn stone, and the centre is adorned with a beautiful equestrian statue of Charles II. A little below the Cathedral of St. Giles, the *Cross* of Edinburgh anciently stood; and the spot, which is marked by a sort of radiated pavement, still receives the appellation of the *Cross*. Here the Scottish statutes were anciently proclaimed; and here royal and other public proclamations are still made. Here also the principal citizens in former times were accustomed to assemble every day betwixt the hours of one and two in the afternoon; and for their entertainment a set of bells is placed in the steeple of the adjoining cathedral, upon which, at that hour, a person, who receives a salary from the magistrates, daily plays, in the manner of a harpsichord, a variety of tunes. At no great distance below the proper cross of Edinburgh, are two great bridges of communication which connect the *Old Town* with the northern and southern districts. These bridges form a most beautiful and elegant street. The central hill is also crossed somewhat lower by another street, which on the south receives the appellation of *St. Mary's Wynd*; and on the north, of *Leith Wynd*.

The

The *Cowgate* resembles the High Street only in the loftiness of its buildings, being too narrow to admit of a side pavement for foot passengers, and being now rapidly falling into decay, in consequence of the extension of the city into more favourable situations.

From the Castle Hill to the palace, the whole space is occupied, or rather most inconceivably crowded, with buildings in rows down each side of the hill. These buildings are piled up to a great height; and as the lanes (or, as they are called, *closes*;) between the rows are seldom more than from six to ten feet in breadth, the lower stories are necessarily extremely dark. The lanes, however, have some variety. Those which admit a carriage to pass through them are usually termed *wyndes*, and in some places small squares are formed, which are usually termed *courts*; but none of these are very ancient.

The communications between the High Street of Edinburgh, or the central ridge of that city, and the northern and southern districts, are themselves no small curiosities. The most remarkable consists of the two bridges, which form one continued street, crossing the High Street, and at right angles with it. In 1763 the *North Bridge* was begun by William Mylne the architect, brother to him who built Blackfriar's Bridge. It consists of three great arches with several small ones at each end, of the following dimensions: width of the three great arches, 72 feet each; breadth or thickness of the piers, $13\frac{1}{2}$ each; width of the small arches, 20 feet each; total length of the piers and arches, 310 feet; length of the bridge from the High Street to Prince's Street, 1,125 feet; height of the great arches from the top of the parapet to the base, 68; breadth of the bridge within wall over the arches, 40; breadth at each end, 50 feet.

The *South Bridge*, thrown over the Cowgate, is in the same line with the North Bridge; but not so high. The foundation stone was laid on the 1st August 1785. The bridge, consisting of 22 arches, was built, the old houses removed, the elegant new buildings on both sides finished, the shops occupied, and the street opened for carriages, in March 1788, an operation of wonderful celerity, which proved a source not of expence but of profit to the public.

Another communication between the centre of the city and the New Town of Edinburgh has of late years been opened, by means of a mound of earth laid from the Lawn Market across the North Loch. This mound was made passable for carriages in three years. It is above 800 feet in length.

The southern district of Edinburgh is a mixture of ancient and modern buildings, in which, upon the whole, the latter predominate.

predominate. The western part of this district is occupied by various hospitals; and beyond these is a very mean suburb called *Portsburgh*, from its vicinity to the western port or gate of the city.

The northern district of Edinburgh, called the New Town, may well be considered as the pride of Scotland. It is excelled in regularity, elegance, and magnificence, by no city in the world. It may be regarded as consisting of two parts; the New Town as originally designed in 1767, and nearly completed; and the additional buildings erected or erecting to the east and the north of it.

The city of Edinburgh is nearly seven miles in circumference, and upon the whole, an object of no small curiosity. The durable materials of its buildings, together with the rapid improvements which have taken place since the commencement of the reign of George the Third, enable it to exhibit at once the dwellings and the accommodation required by the same people in very different states of society, and in remote periods of their history. The houses may still be seen in which the proudest and wealthiest of the Scottish nobles and gentry formerly found adequate accommodation for a city residence, but which are now occupied by ordinary mechanics and tradesmen; while in their immediate vicinity, and in full view, a city of palaces has been reared, which marks strongly by contrast the altered state of this part of the British empire.

In consequence of the extreme irregularity of the soil, the vicinity of the Frith of Forth, and the fertility of the adjoining country, it is perhaps impossible to find in the world a situation presenting such a boundless variety as occurs in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, of beautiful, magnificent, and singular scenery. At every step the prospect alters, objects already seen appear in different points of view, or new ones ascend into notice. In particular, the views from the western part of Queen Street, from the Calton Hill, from the Castle Hill, from Salisbury Craigs, from a variety of situations on the adjoining hills, and more especially from the towering summit of Arthur's Seat, are inconceivably magnificent.

Edinburgh is well supplied with excellent water, and at an easy expence.

Leith. Leith, which is the port of Edinburgh, stands at the mouth of a small river of that name, and appears to have been anciently called *Inverleith*. The harbour is formed by the conflux of the Water of Leith with the sea. The depth at the mouth of the harbour is at neap tides about nine, but in high spring tides about sixteen feet. It is entirely a tide harbour; the water in the river being too trifling to assist the navigation.

navigation. It has wet and dry docks, and other conveniences for ship-building. Leith consists of two parishes, called *South* and *North Leith*. In the former the greatest part of the town is included; and also a considerable country district extending southward towards Arthur's Seat, and including the ancient parish of Restalrig. South Leith contains in its suburbs many fine houses belonging to wealthy merchants, and one or two good streets; but in general the town is laid out in an irregular form, with narrow streets and lanes, which are usually extremely dirty. Leith is also ill supplied with fresh water; that in the wells is neither good nor abundant; and the inhabitants have never adopted any rational plan for supplying themselves from a distance. They once levied money by a voluntary contribution, to bring water from a lake in the parish, called *Lochend*, which is about 500 yards in length, and half as much in breadth, but the water was never good, and is continually becoming worse.

MUNICIPALITY. By its municipal constitution, Edinburgh is divided into several districts. Of these, the ancient royal borough, or royalty as it is called, is the head. It consists of the High Street to the head of the Canongate, of the Cowgate and Grass Market, with their adjoining lanes. The magistrates of this ancient district, in the character of barons, or lords of all the rest, appoint inferior magistrates, who govern the Canongate, the suburbs of Portsburgh and the Potter Row, and the Town of Leith, under the appellation of *Baron Bailies*. Edinburgh, strictly so called, that is the ancient royal borough, has a municipal government, consisting of what is called the *town council*, composed of thirty-three persons; twenty-five constitute the *ordinary council*, which alone manages many of the city's affairs, and the remaining eight are *extraordinary members*. These magistrates are merchants and tradesmen. In many respects the magistrates of boroughs are still considered as immediate dependants or servants of the crown, particularly in the forms by which property in boroughs is transferred. A burgess selling his house surrenders it to the magistrates, as the king's commissioners or bailies, and they deliver the possession to the purchaser. It was probably under some notion of this sort of their immediately representing the king, that the town council of Scottish boroughs assumed the privilege, which they still exercise, of granting charters, styled *seals of cause*, to particular classes of tradesmen, called *crafts*, or *companies of arts*, constituting them into separate incorporations. These incorporated trades gradually grew into importance in the several boroughs; and at last a distinction came to be made between them and the merchants properly so called, who merely
buy

buy and sell, but do not exercise any branch of art or manufacture. The incorporations created by the town councils appear at last to have insisted upon being allowed to sit, by their representatives, in the body which bestowed upon them a political existence. The municipal constitution of Edinburgh, which was not ultimately fixed without many struggles, is so contrived as to preserve a sort of balance between the merchants or persons who sell commodities, and the incorporated tradesmen.

Merchant Company. The merchants of Edinburgh were erected into a body corporate, on the 19th of October 1681; when they received a royal charter, under the name of the company of merchants in the city of Edinburgh. The charter authorizes them to elect a president, who is called the *Master of the Merchant Company*, together with twelve assistants, a treasurer, clerk, and officers. The company were empowered to purchase lands, to make bye-laws, to levy a tax upon apprentices and members, chiefly for the support of their poor.

Fourteen Incorporations. The incorporated trades are fourteen in number; and each trade elects, under certain restrictions, a president, called its *Deacon*, by whom it is represented in the town council. They take precedence of each other in the order in which they are enumerated.

1st. *The Royal College of Surgeons*, erected into a corporation the 1st July 1505. In 1772, the surgeons and barbers were separated in all respects, except that the barbers are still obliged to enter their apprentices in the register kept by the surgeons; and by a charter dated 14th March 1778, this incorporation was erected anew, under the name of the *Royal College of Surgeons of the city of Edinburgh*.

2d. *The Goldsmiths*, originally incorporated with the hammermen. The period of their separation is uncertain; but it was before 1581, when a charter from the town council prescribed to them minute and judicious regulations concerning their apprentices, and work.

3d. *The Skinners* were erected into a corporation in or before the year 1586.

4th. *The Farriers* were also incorporated; but at what time is unknown.

5th. *The Hammermen* entered into a corporation the 2d May 1483. This community at that time comprehended the following crafts: blacksmiths, goldsmiths, saddlers, cutlers, and armourers. There are now comprehended in it the blacksmiths, cutlers, saddlers, locksmiths, armourers, pewterers, sheersmiths, watch-makers, goldsmiths, hook-makers, pin-makers, belt-makers, founders, braziers, copper-smiths, and white-iron-smiths.

6th and

6th and 7th. *The Wrights and Masons* form a single incorporation; but they have a double representation in the town council, one deacon being annually chosen to represent each. They were incorporated the 15th October 1475, and are commonly known by the name of *the United Incorporation of Mary's Chapel*. The following crafts are comprized in this description: wrights, masons, bowyers, glaziers, plumbers, upholsterers, painters, flaters, sieviewrights, and coopers.

8th. *The Tailors* possess several charters ratified by the Scottish kings; but the time of their first incorporation is unknown.

9th. *The Bakers* possess a charter in 1522, which mentions their having been in possession of previous charters, then lost.

10th. *The Flesbers* are a very old incorporation; but the time of their institution is unknown. It appears, however, that as early as 1488 regulations for them were established by the magistrates. At that time they appear to have been dealers in fish as well as flesh. They reject the appellation of *butchers*, accounting it harsh and murderous.

11th. *The Cordiners or Shoemakers* are among the oldest incorporations in Edinburgh. Maitland places their institution in 1449.

12th. *The Weavers* were incorporated by a charter, dated 31st January 1475.

13th. *The Waukers* were originally clothiers. Their employment is now circumscribed to the milling and scowering of cloth. They were incorporated on the 20th August 1500. *The Hatters* were united with them in 1672.

14th. *The Bonnet Makers* were incorporated in 1530. By the fashion of wearing hats their business has been ruined. *The Dyers* were united with this incorporation in 1640.

The Candle Makers were incorporated 5th September 1517; but they have no representation in the council. It will also be observed that several new trades remain necessarily unrepresented in the council, as booksellers, printers, engravers, grocers, vintners, and others.

The town council is elected in the following manner: first the fourteen incorporations meet by themselves; and each incorporation makes out a list (or *leet*, as it is called) of six persons, out of which the deacon of each incorporation must be chosen. These fourteen lists or *leets* are laid before the ordinary council of twenty-four, who strike off three names from the six, and return the lists so abridged to the different incorporations; and this is termed *shortening the leets*. Out of the leets thus shortened the incorporations choose their respective deacons, and present them to the ordinary council, who out of the fourteen deacons choose six to be members
of

of their body, upon which the six council deacons of the former year retire. The next step in the election is the choice of three merchants' and two trades' counsellors. This is performed by the ordinary council, but the merchants' and trades' counsellors of the former year do not, upon the choice of their successors, immediately withdraw, but vote along with them in the remaining steps of the election. There are then thirty members who proceed to make up *leets*, out of which the lord provost, dean of guild, treasurer, and bailies must be chosen. For this purpose a list is formed of three persons, one of whom must be elected provost. A similar list for the election of dean of guild; a third, for treasurer; and a list of twelve, out of which the four bailies must be chosen, all of whom in the *leets* for provost and magistrates must be merchants. The *leets* being made up, these thirty being joined by them, the eight *extraordinary* council deacons, elect the magistrates for the ensuing year. As the new part of the council, ordinary and extraordinary, is now filled up to this extent,

- 6 Council deacons,
- 3 Merchant counsellors,
- 2 Trades' counsellors, and,
- 8 Extraordinary council deacons,

19 in all,

fourteen more members are required to form the full council of thirty-three. Of these the following eleven are chosen on the first Tuesday after Michaelmas (29th of September): the lord provost, either a new person elected into that office, or the present one continued; four bailies; four old bailies, their offices borne by the four bailies of the former year of course; the dean of guild, either a new person elected, or the present one of course. Hence, if the three offices of lord provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, should all happen to be supplied with new persons, instead of eleven vacancies in the council being filled up on the day already mentioned, there would be fourteen, which would render the council complete; for the persons who were formerly provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, would, for the ensuing year, become old provost, old dean of guild, and old treasurer; but if no new persons are elected to be provost, &c. then there are none to fill up the places of old provost, &c. of course; which therefore is done, either at the next or some subsequent meeting, by the ordinary council of twenty-three or twenty-four. The number is therefore various; because it sometimes happens that a new provost,

provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, do not come into council in the same year, but a new provost and dean of guild the one year, and new treasurer the other, alternately.

MAGISTRACY. The magistracy of Edinburgh formerly possessed or assumed very high powers, setting themselves frequently above the crown, and affecting an independence of the legislature. Modern good sense has reduced these extravagant pretensions, but they still possess very ample powers in the administration of justice.

Lord Provost. The office of lord provost of Edinburgh has at times been held by men of very great respectability, whose activity and public spirit have much contributed to the improvement of the city. The provost is styled *right honourable*, and is high sheriff, coroner, and admiral, within the city and liberties, and the town, harbour, and road of Leith. He has jurisdiction in matters of life and death. He was an officer of the Scottish parliament, is president of the convention of royal boroughs, colonel of the trained bands, commander of the city guard and of Edinburgh jail. Within the city he has the precedence of all the nobility and great officers of state upon all occasions, walking on the right hand of the king, or of his majesty's commissioner, and has the privilege of having a sword and mace borne before him. The magistrates are justices of the peace and sheriffs depute; and the town council are patrons of the university, and electors of the city's representatives in parliament. They have the right of presenting to all offices of trust, honour, or emolument, depending upon the city.

The lord provost and magistrates have one or other of them an extensive civil, and a still more ample criminal jurisdiction. The courts held by them are, the criminal court, the bailie court, the ten merk court, and the dean of guild court.

The powers of the lord provost of Edinburgh and of the bailies, who are considered as his deputies as judges of crime, are extremely extensive, though of late they have not been frequently exerted. Instances exist on record of trials before them for murder, and all inferior crimes, such as house-breaking, theft, forgery, using false keys, lifting dead bodies from the grave, celebrating irregular marriages, publishing defamatory libels, &c.

Bailie Court. What is called the bailie court is held by one of the four bailies, who sit for three months alternately. In this court actions for debt are commenced to any amount against a party who is inhabitant of Edinburgh. This court tries frauds against the city's revenues, and has a power of valuing

and felling ruinous houses within the borough, that they may be rebuilt in case the proprietors shall refuse to rebuild them.

Ten Merk Court. What is called the ten merk court is held weekly by one of the bailies. Its name expresses the extent of its jurisdiction; the sum of 11s. 1 $\frac{2}{3}$ d. being the highest amount for which any action can be brought before it, excepting actions for servants' wages.

Dean of Guild Court. The dean of guild court regulates buildings within the borough, and is very necessary in Edinburgh; where the height of the houses, and the manner in which they are crowded together, occasions many disputes. The business of the lord dean of guild, as he is called, is to take care that the buildings within the city be erected according to law; that encroachments be not made upon the public streets; also, to judge between adjoining proprietors concerning the limits of their respective properties; to consider the state of buildings, whether they be in such condition as to threaten damage to those dwelling in them, or to the neighbourhood; and to grant warrant for repairing, pulling down, or rebuilding them, according to the circumstances of the case.

The dean of guild has a council of five appointed to him, whose opinions he consults; but if it be a matter of much importance, as the ordering a house to be pulled down as ruinous, he does not proceed but upon the verdict of a jury of fifteen men, half merchants, half tradesmen, who are specially called for the purpose.

Town's Assessors. As the bailies and dean of guild of Edinburgh, who act as judges in those courts, cannot be supposed qualified, from their education or habits, to decide upon the elaborate written pleadings which are frequently laid before them in questions of importance, the town council allows a salary to four ordinary assessors, who are members of the faculty of advocates; and these gentlemen determine all such causes. The magistrate only annexes his subscription, to give authority to the decision. His majesty's advocate and solicitor are at times consulted as extraordinary assessors.

Baron Bailies. As the town council of Edinburgh are superiors of the Canongate, Portsburgh, and Leith, they appoint certain of their own number bailies of these *boroughs of barony*. They are called the *Baron Bailie of the Canongate, Portsburgh, &c.* The one appointed for Leith is called the *Admiral of Leith*; because within that district he has a jurisdiction in maritime affairs. The baron bailies appoint one or two inhabitants of the respective baronies their substitutes. These are called *resident bailies*. They hold courts in absence of the baron

baron bailies for discussing civil causes of small moment, and deciding on petty offences.

Incorporations of Leith. Mary of Lorraine, queen-dowager and regent of Scotland, divided and incorporated the inhabitants of Leith in four classes. The *mariners* consisting of ship masters and sailors; the *malsters*, of malt-makers and brewers; the *trades*, being coopers, smiths, bakers, wrights, &c.; and the fourth of *merchants* and shop-keepers. Of these incorporations, that of the mariners now makes the principal figure, in consequence of their possessing considerable funds, and of their occasional interference in the regulation of affairs relative to navigation. Opposite to South Leith church there is a large house belonging to them, called the *Trinity House*, from its having anciently been an hospital dedicated to the Holy Trinity. Some of their poor were formerly kept here; but they have adopted the more judicious mode of supporting them as out pensioners.

PRISONS. There are in Edinburgh two jails called *Tolbooths*, and a Bridewell.

The building called *the Tolbooth* stands in the middle of the High Street, at the western extremity of that range of buildings (most part of which has been lately pulled down) called the Luckenbooths. It was erected by the citizens of Edinburgh in 1561, not merely for the purposes of a prison, but likewise for the accommodation of the parliament and courts of justice, but they being removed, it has been kept solely as a prison, ever since 1640. The last parliament at which royalty presided was held in the Tolbooth, immediately after the coronation of Charles I. in July 1633. The external appearance of the building is mean; nor do the accommodations within compensate for the want of elegance without. The ground floor of the Tolbooth is partly laid out in shops, and partly occupied by the soldiers of the town guard.

Canongate Tolbooth. The Canongate Tolbooth, or prison, appears from an inscription on the front, to have been either built or repaired in the reign of James VI. It comprizes a court-room for the baron bailie of the district, and is surmounted with a spire and clock. Besides this there are court houses and prisons in the other suburbs; but none of these deserve particular notice.

Bridewell. The Edinburgh Bridewell was founded the 30th of November 1791, before which period there was an institution of a similar kind, under the name of the *House of Correction*, for the reception of strolling poor, vagrants, and prostitutes. This establishment was projected in 1632; and being the first of the kind in the town, a person was brought

from England to superintend its management. This in course of time being found on a scale too small for the increased population of the city, a new bridewell was projected, and the present building reared; it stands on the high hill in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, is of semicircular form, and consists of five floors. It was finished in 1796, and the expence of its erection defrayed by an assessment on the inhabitants of the city and county, aided by a grant of 5000*l.* from government.

REVENUE. The proper *revenue* of the city of Edinburgh consists, first, of certain duties or taxations; such as the impost on wines, the shore dues at Leith, the duties collected at the flesh, poultry, fish, meal, and other markets; the annuity, or minister's stipend; secondly, of landed property, such as Leith and Bruntsfield Links, Calton Hill, and Meadows, with some houses and shops in Edinburgh and Leith; thirdly, of their feu duties, as those of the mills on the Water of Leith, of the houses in the New Town, &c.; and, fourthly, of what is paid for private water-pipes. Beside these there is a statutory revenue arising from a tax of two pence Scots on every Scots pint of ale or beer brewed within the city, or imported into it. The debts of the city are very great.

ROYAL EXCHANGE. The Exchange is on the north side of the High Street, adjoining to the spot where the Cross formerly stood. It was begun in 1754, and finished in 1761. It is an elegant building of a square figure, with a court in the centre. The principal part forms the north side of the square, and extends from east to west 111 feet, by 51 feet broad. Pillars and arches, supporting a platform, run along the south front, which faces the square, and forms a piazza. In the centre, four Corinthian pillars, whose bases rest upon the platform, support a pediment, on which the arms of the city are engraved. This building is to the south, or main front, 60; but, by reason of the extreme inequality of the surface, to the northern 100 feet high. The extreme dimensions of the whole building amount to 182 feet south and north, by 111 feet east and west upon the north front, but upon the south front 147 feet. This fine building has never answered the purpose for which it was intended. Instead of assembling here for business, the merchants and others still continue to meet in the open street, where the Cross formerly was, and where they remain, like their ancestors, exposed to all the severity of the weather.

CHURCHES.

ALL that is called the ancient royal borough, or royalty of the city of Edinburgh, is considered as one parish, to which the New Town has been annexed; and it bears the name of *St. Giles*; but this does not include the Canongate, which forms a separate parish; nor is the greater part of the southern district comprized, nor the buildings in the New Town beyond the regular parallelogram or plan adopted by the public for that part of the city. These belong to the parish of *St. Cuthbert*, which includes a considerable part of the adjoining country. The town of *Leith* has also a distinct ecclesiastical establishment, and is divided into two parishes, called the *North* and the *South*. In Edinburgh and Leith, the regular established clergy of the Presbyterian church, who receive salaries from the public, are twenty-four in number. Of these, three belong to Leith, two to the Canongate, and two to *St. Cuthbert's*, commonly called the *West Kirk*. The remainder are allotted to the new and old divisions of the royal borough of Edinburgh, the magistrates of which are their patrons. Beside these, however, there are some other churches connected with the establishment, called *Chapels of Ease*; the incumbents of which are supported chiefly, like dissenters, out of the revenue collected from the rents of the seats. One of these chapels of ease is in the parish of *St. Cuthbert*, two in the Canongate, one in the ancient part of the city of Edinburgh, and one in Leith, besides a chapel in which the Gaelic or Erse language is preached, for the accommodation of the lower class of persons who resort to Edinburgh from the Highlands, and who act in great numbers in the capacity of chairmen, porters, and servants.

St. Giles. The church of *St. Giles*, the ancient cathedral, is situated in the High Street, and forms the northern boundary of the Parliament Square or Close. It measures in length from east to west, over the walls, 206 feet; at the west end it is 110 feet broad, and in the middle 129, but at the east only 76. It is a beautiful Gothic building, adorned with a lofty square tower, the top of which is encircled with open figured stone work, resembling the ornaments that enrich the circle of an imperial crown. From each side and each corner of the tower rises a slip of stone work, which meeting in the top with that which springs from the opposite sides, forms four arches, intersecting each other, and completing the figure of an imperial crown, the top of which terminates in a pointed spire. The church is built on a very elevated situation, and the

height of the spire is 161 feet. At what time this fabric was reared does not appear, but it was long in great estimation as a religious establishment, and about forty altars were founded in it. In 1466 James III. erected it into a collegiate church; of which the chapter consisted of a provost, curate, 16 prebendaries, a minister of the choir, four choristers, a sacristan, and beadle. At the Reformation, the sacred utensils belonging to this church were seized and sold by the magistrates of Edinburgh. The money was applied, after repairing the church, to augment the ordinary funds of the incorporation. The church itself was divided by partition walls; and its principal apartments are still used as four separate churches, under the appellation of the *New Church*, the *Old Church*, the *Tolbooth Church*, which is adjoining to the prison, and *Haddow's Hole Church*, so called from a gentleman of that name having been confined in it. To each of these churches two clergymen are allotted. The New Church is formed out of the choir of St. Giles. It is considered as the principal church of the city; it has been fitted up in a new and elegant manner, with a gallery which goes along two sides and one of its ends. In this gallery is a seat or ornamented throne for the king, which is used by the commissioner to the general assembly of the church. In the same gallery are seats for the magistrates of Edinburgh, and for the judges of the two courts of Session and Exchequer, who attend divine service during the time of Session, in their robes. The pulpit and the front of the gallery are covered with crimson velvet fringed with gold. The lesser apartments of this church are allotted to other purposes.

College Church. The College Church, the second in point of antiquity in Edinburgh, is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, but the plan has never been completed, the choir, the central tower, and the cross alone have been erected. It was founded by Mary of Gueldres, queen of James II. in 1462, and was a collegiate church, consisting of a provost, eight prebendaries, and two choristers. The body of the foundress is interred in the north aisle of the church. The remaining churches have been built since the Reformation.

Greyfriars. The Old and New Greyfriars form one building on the ground of a monastery in the midst of the most public cemetery of Edinburgh.

Tron Church. This church, which derived its name from its vicinity to the tron or public beam used in former times for weighing merchandize, was opened in 1647; and is now a very conspicuous object, standing at the point in the centre of
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of the town, where the two bridges communicate with each other.

Lady Esther's Church. Lady Esther's Church a building of moderate extent, situated in the southern district, near the Infirmary and the High School, owes its origin to a donation by dame Margaret Ker Lady Esther, in 1674.

Canongate Church. Anciently the abbey church of Holyrood-house, was the parish church of the Canongate; but James VII. during his residence in Scotland, having ordered the church to be set apart as a chapel royal, the inhabitants of the Canongate were under the necessity of building the present church for themselves, which is a large building constructed in the ancient fashion, in the form of a cross, and contains seats appropriated to several of the nobility, who once resided in the Canongate.

St. Cuthbert's Church. The church of St. Cuthbert is chiefly remarkable within, as a large building well adapted to contain a very numerous congregation, and without as a coarse stone building, which has recently been ornamented with a spire.

St. Andrew's Church. St. Andrew's is a handsome oval building, situated on the north side of George Street, in the New Town.

St. George's Church. The last founded church in Edinburgh is called St. George's; an elegant building in the New Town, which was opened for divine service in 1814.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

Heriot's Hospital. This magnificent fabric, esteemed the finest and most regular specimen of Gothic architecture left by Inigo Jones, is situated in the southern district, on the summit of the ridge, and consists of a square, whose side measures 162 feet on the outside, leaving an open court 94 feet each way in the middle. The north and east sides of this court are decorated with piazzas, and a walk $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet in breadth. This court is paved with square stones, and has a well in the middle. Over the gateway is a spire and a clock; and the upper corners of the building on the outside are ornamented with turrets. The windows are 200, so ornamented that no one is similar to another; a circumstance which to persons of taste constitutes the chief deformity of the building. The chapel, which is on the south side of the building, is extremely beautiful. This hospital was founded by George Heriot, a goldsmith in Edinburgh, who from small beginnings realized a sum of 50,000*l*, which at the time when he died (1624) was

considered a very large fortune. After providing largely for two illegitimate daughters, and giving legacies to his relations and friends, he bequeathed the residue of his property, 23,625*l.*, to the town council and ministers of Edinburgh, for building and endowing an hospital for the maintenance and education of indigent children, the sons of burgeses of that city. The number of boys maintained in it has been various at different periods; at one time they amounted to 140, and are still above 100. They are instructed in reading and writing, English, and arithmetic, and on being apprenticed each boy is allowed 25*l.* and a farther donation of 5*l.* at the end of his service.

Watson's Hospital. Watson's Hospital is instituted for the education of boys, the children or grandchildren of decayed merchants in Edinburgh. It is a handsome building, situated in the neighbourhood of Heriot's Hospital, and contains about 60 boys, who are taught by the best masters, English, Latin, Greek, and French, so as to be prepared for the university. They are also taught writing, arithmetic, and book-keeping, so as to be qualified for the counting-house; together with geography, with the use of the globes and maps. Such of them as discover an unusual capacity for literature are allowed 10*l.* per annum for five years after they leave the hospital, to assist them in prosecuting their studies at the university. Others, at fifteen or sixteen years of age, are bound apprentices to different employments; and 20*l.* are allowed as an apprentice fee. On producing certificates of their good behaviour, when twenty-five years of age, they receive a bounty of 50*l.* The founder, George Watson, was the son of a merchant in Edinburgh, who left his affairs in embarrassment. After acting in various situations, he was appointed accountant to the Bank of Scotland, and afterwards treasurer to the Merchants' Maiden Hospital; and to the Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge. He died in 1723, bequeathing his property, 12,000*l.*, to the Merchant Company of Edinburgh to build this hospital.

Charity Workhouses. The charity workhouse of Edinburgh is a municipal institution intended for the support of the aged and infirm poor. It stands in the neighbourhood of the two former hospitals, and consists of a very plain building, which was erected in 1743. The expence was defrayed by voluntary subscription; and the ordinary mode of supporting the establishment is by a tax of two *per cent.* on the valued rents of the city, by collections at the church doors and other charitable donations, by the labour of the persons residing in it, and by voluntary contributions of the citizens made in consequence of public intimation of a deficiency of the funds. In the
Canongate,

Canongate, and in the parish of St. Cuthbert, are similar establishments, which are supported in the same manner.

Merchants' Maiden Hospital. The hospital which bears this name was erected toward the end of the seventeenth century by voluntary contribution; to which the company of merchants gave peculiar assistance; and Mrs. Mary Erskine contributed 12,000 merks. Its annual revenues are now considerable, amounting to upwards of 1,400*l.* sterling. Seventy girls are maintained in it, who receive the profits of their own work, and a trifling sum on their leaving the house. The building is very ordinary.

Trades' Maiden Hospital. Near to this is situated the Trades' Maiden Hospital, instituted soon after the former, destined for the education and support of the daughters of decayed tradesmen. Mrs. Mary Erskine was a liberal contributor to this charity.

Orphan Hospital. From the North Bridge is seen, closely adjoining on the north-east of it, the Orphan Hospital. It was planned by Andrew Gardener, merchant in Edinburgh in 1732, received countenance from the Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge, and was assisted by a liberal subscription. Orphan children are received not under seven years of age, from any quarter of the kingdom, and are not continued after fourteen. Its revenues are inconsiderable, being supported chiefly by small benefactions from charitable persons, and by a part of the sums collected at the church doors.

Trinity Hospital is situated in the neighbourhood of Trinity College church, and endowed by the same foundress, Mary of Gueldres. After some disasters at the Reformation, it survived the fate of most other religious and charitable establishments, and was destined for the support of decayed burghesses of Edinburgh, their wives and unmarried children, not below fifty years of age. Forty persons are maintained in it, besides a considerable number of out-pensioners. The residents are very liberally supported, being allowed decent clothes, separate apartments, and a small library.

Dispensary. The public dispensary is a valuable institution, founded in 1770, by Dr. Andrew Duncan, physician. It is chiefly supported by voluntary contributions, and resembles establishments of the same description in London.

Gillespie's Hospital. The founder of this structure was an eminent manufacturer of snuff in Edinburgh. It is intended for the support of aged persons; and those bearing the name of the founder are preferred. It is a neat stone building, executed in a style of moderate expence, with a small tower in the centre and a parapet, and Gothic turrets at suitable distances

tances around the roof. It stands to the north-west of the castle, near a suburb called Wright's Houses.

There are also in Edinburgh, a *Magdalen Hospital*, a *Lying-in Hospital*, a *Hospital for the Industrious Blind*, and a *Society for the Relief of the Destitute Sick*.

PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS.

THE public amusements of Edinburgh do not form a conspicuous figure in its description. There is no Opera-house, nor any public musical establishment. The *Theatre* is small, and although curiosity occasionally attracts full audiences, it is not, in general, well attended. There is a *Circus* for horsemanship, but it is not of sufficient importance to require particular notice. The amusements most popular and most congenial to the general disposition seem to be those in which the parties to be amused can take an active share, and particularly those which are familiarized by habit, endeared by national peculiarity, or recommended by the position of the city. Among these may be mentioned, the various *Societies of Archers*; the *Golf Club*, the *Caledonian Hunt*, and the *Leith Races*.

POLITICAL STATE
OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE.

THIRD GENERAL DIVISION.

IRELAND.

HISTORY. The period of the first population of Ireland has given rise to much loose conjecture, and much ingenious discussion. The great predilection of the people for the boast of ancestral antiquity, has led many writers to subscribe to a belief in the genealogy of a long series of kings of whom nothing is known but their names, while the ingenuity of a learned antiquary has shewn a striking and curious affinity between the vernacular language of the Irish at this day, and the only remaining trace of the Carthaginian or Phœnician tongue preserved by Plautus. Without exploring these profound recesses of inquiry, it will be sufficient to give a short view of Ireland, and its historical epochs, as detailed by Mr. Pinkerton.

The large and fertile island of Ireland, being situated to the west of Great Britain, was probably discovered by the Phœnicians as early as the sister island. On the first dawn of history, and when the north-west of Europe was as obscure to the Greeks as the islands on the north-east of Siberia were recently to us, it would seem that Ireland constituted one of the Cassiterides. The poems ascribed to Orpheus deserve no credit, but it appears that the island was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna, about two centuries before the birth of Christ. When Cæsar made his expedition into Britain, he describes Hibernia as being about half the size of the island
which

which he had explored; and while the Romans maintained their conquests in the latter region, Ireland continued of course to be well known to them; and Ptolemy has given a map of the island which is superior in accuracy to that which represents Scotland. Toward the decline of the western empire, as the country had become more and more known, and had been peopled with various tribes, the Romans discovered that the ruling people in Ireland were the Scoti; and thenceforth the country began to be termed Scotia, an appellation retained by the monastic writers till the eleventh century, when the name Scotia having passed to modern Scotland, the ancient name of Hibernia began to re-assume its honours. It is supposed that this name, and the Gothic denomination Ireland, are mere modifications of the native term Erin, implying the country of the west.

It is probable that the original population of Ireland passed from Gaul, and was afterward increased by their brethren the Guydil from England. About the time that the Belgæ seized on the south of England, it appears that the kindred Gothic tribes passed to the south of Ireland. These are the Firbolg of the Irish traditions; and appear to have been the same people whom the Romans denominated Scoti, after they had emerged to their notice by not only extending their conquests to the north and east in Ireland, but had begun to make maritime excursions against the Roman provinces in Britain. But Ireland had been so much crowded by Celtic tribes, expelled from the continent and Britain, by the progress of the German Goths, that the Belgæ almost lost their native speech and distinct character; and from intermarriages, &c. became little distinguishable from the original population except by superior ferocity, for which the Scoti, or those who affected a descent from the Gothic colonies, were remarkable; while the original Gael seem to have been an innocuous people.

Historical Epochs. The first historical epoch of Ireland is its original population by the Celtic Gauls, and the subsequent colonization by the Belgæ.

2. The maritime excursions of the Scoti against the Roman provinces in Britain.

3. The conversion of Ireland to Christianity in the fifth century, which was followed by a singular effect; for while the mass of the people retained all the ferocity of savage manners, the monasteries produced many men of such piety and learning, that Scotia or Ireland became celebrated all over Christendom.

4. This lustre was diminished by the ravages of the Scandinavians, which began with the ninth century, and can hardly be said to have ceased when the English settlement commenced.

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The island had been split into numerous principalities, or kingdoms as they were styled; and though a chief monarch was acknowledged, yet his power was seldom efficient, and the constant dissensions of so many small tribes rendered the island an easy prey.

5. In the year 1170, Henry II. permitted Richard Strongbow Earl of Pembroke to effect a settlement in Ireland, which laid the foundation of the English possessions in that country. There are, however, coins of Canute King of England, struck at Dublin, perhaps in acknowledgment of his power by the Danish settlers.

6. Ireland began to produce some manufacturers about the fourteenth century, and her sayes or thin woollen clothes were exported to Italy. It is probable that these were produced by the Bristolian colony, which had passed to Dublin.

7. Richard II. of England attempted in person the conquest of Ireland, but being imprudent and ill served, nothing of moment was effected. The subsequent attempts of the English monarchs to accomplish this purpose need not be enumerated.

8. In the reign of James I., Ireland became entirely subjugated; and colonies of English and Scots were established in the north.

9. The chief mean of the assimilation of the countries having been completely neglected, namely, the universal institution of parochial schools, for the education of children in the protestant religion and English language, the Irish continued a distinct people; and being instigated by their fanatic priests, executed their dreadful massacre of the English settlers in 1641. This insurrection was not totally crushed till Cromwell led his veterans into Ireland.

10. The appearance of James II. in Ireland to reclaim his crown, may also deserve a place.

11. The amazing progress of Ireland in manufactures and commerce, within these twenty years, may be classed as the most illustrious of its historical epochs.

12. The deplorable events which happened in Ireland toward the close of the eighteenth century led the way to its Union with Great Britain, a measure which it is eagerly to be hoped will be productive of great reciprocal advantages.

EXTENT AND POPULATION. These points are not so exactly defined with respect to Ireland, as they are in England and Scotland. This island, which next to Great Britain is the largest in Europe, lies at no great distance from the western shores of England, and is still nearer to the coast of Scotland. It is separated from Britain by the Irish sea, which varies in breadth from fourteen to forty leagues; but between Scotland
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and the county of Down it is contracted into a channel only six leagues wide, and farther north, to a still narrower strait of less than four, between the north-east point of the coast of Antrim and the Mull of Kintyre. Ireland has not yet been surveyed with sufficient care to determine exactly either its size or its situation. The maps hitherto formed have not been sufficiently accurate to make the exact size of the country certain. Mr. Pinkerton says the extent is about 300 miles in length, and about 160 at the greatest breadth, and the contents in square miles may be computed at 27,457. Mr. Wakefield, using a map published by Mr. Arrowsmith, which he deems to be the most correct extant, makes the superficial contents of the island, including the inland lakes, 32,201 English square miles, equal to 12,722,615 English, or 20,437,974 Irish acres.

The legislature of Ireland before the Union never attempted to procure a correct enumeration of the people; a bill for that purpose was brought into the House of Commons of the United Kingdom, but speedily abandoned; consequently all notions on this subject are left in a considerable degree to speculation and conjecture, but the sagacity of political writers has found data capable of affording satisfactory results.

Sir William Petty, the first authority on this subject, states the following progress of population. The number of people

In 1652.	-	-	was	-	-	850,000
1672.	-	-	-	-	-	1,100,000
According to Mr. South, the computation was,						
1695.	-	-	-	-	-	1,034,100
By a poll tax return in						
1731.	-	-	-	-	-	2,010,221

Anderson, in his History of Commerce, states from the papers of Dr. Maule, Bishop of Dromore, that the number was, in 1733, 2,000,000. According to a return made by the collectors of hearth money, the number of houses in the year specified were as follows:

1754.	-	-	-	-	-	395,439
1767.	-	-	-	-	-	424,646
1777.	-	-	-	-	-	448,426
1785.	-	-	-	-	-	474,322
1788.	-	-	-	-	-	621,484

The papers in the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, from which these numbers are extracted, were written by Mr. Bushe, first commissioner of the revenue, who has subjoined to his table a great many curious remarks which are worthy of
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attention. The houses of which he caused the population to be taken, gave $6\frac{1}{4}$ souls each; now if, omitting the fraction, we allow only six to a house, the number of inhabitants, according to this mode of computation, must have amounted to 3,728,904. By a similar return, obtained in 1791, under the direction of Mr. Wray, inspector of hearth money, it appears that the number of houses was 701,102; and reckoning six to a house as a medium, we shall have for the whole number of inhabitants 4,206,612.

In an inquiry into the population of Ireland published by Mr. Newenham in 1805, the author, proceeding on a calculation formed by Dr. Price, that the number of inhabitants doubles in 46 years, estimates the annual increase at 91,448 souls, and consequently fixes the population at about 5,398,436. And if these bases are admitted, the addition of 91,448, for every succeeding year, with perhaps a small super-addition for the increase of the increase, will furnish a rationally conjectured total for any year for some time to come.

MOUNTAINS. In considering the face of the country it must be remembered that Ireland forms a striking contrast to Scotland, being mostly level, fertile, and abundant in pasturage. The chains of hills, for they can hardly aspire to the name of mountains, are few and unimportant; an upland ridge divides the country from the N. E. to the S. W., giving birth to several of the rivers. The Irish hills generally form short lines, or detached groupes. One groupe of considerable height appears on the west and south of Lough Lane, or what is called the Lake of Killarney: of these Mangerton is 2,500 feet above the sea. A small line of hills extends on the north-west of Bantry Bay, and passes to the east, under the name of the Shehy Mountains. To the north of this is the line of Sliblogher and Nagles: followed by the Galtee mountains; and toward the east are those of Knockendown, which bend southward toward the bay of Dungarvon. A small chain also appears to the south of Tralee, which with a groupe to the north-east may be said to complete the enumeration of the mountains of Munster.

In Leinster is a mountain so called, the line of Slieb-loom on the S. W., and a considerable groupe to the south of Dublin, styled the Kippure mountains, or those of Wicklow. The extent of this groupe is about 30 English miles in length, by about 12 in breadth.

In Ulster is a small groupe called the mountains of Mourne, in the S. E. corner of the province; one of them, Donard, is said to be about the height of Mangerton. The hills of Slieve-croob (in the Irish language *sliebh* signifies a mountain,) form
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the centre of the county of Down; and several hills are sprinkled over the eastern half of Antrim. On the north-west of Loughnear are those of Slievegallan and Carntogher. Slieve Snaght is a considerable mountain N. W. of Loughfoyl, whence other lines and groups extend down to Loughern.

The eastern part of Connaught presents numerous marshes; but few mountains except those of Baughta on the south. The extreme western peninsula is one of the most mountainous regions in Ireland. Among other names may be mentioned Mount Nephin in the county of Mayo, a solitary hill of 2,640 feet, and one of the most considerable in the island. That of Croagh Patrick on the S. E. of Clew Bay, a cone of 2,666 feet; the Fernamoor mountains to the west of Loughmask; and the 12 pins, a line of so many small peaks in Ballinahinch; with others to the south of Loughcorrib.

The following is furnished by Mr. Wakefield as a comparative table of the elevation above the level of the sea, of some remarkable eminences in England, Scotland, and Ireland, with the authorities for the heights.

ENGLAND.

			Feet.	Measured by
Whernside	Yorkshire	-	5340	Jefferys
Ingleborough	ditto	-	5280	ditto
Penny Gueft	ditto	-	5220	ditto
Snowdon	Wales	-	3568	Pennant
Pendlehill	ditto	-	3411	Waddington
Crofsfellin	Cumberland	-	3390	Donald
Hellvellyn	ditto	-	3324	ditto
Skiddaw	ditto	-	3270	ditto

SCOTLAND.

Benlomond	-	-	3240	Pennant
Benewick	-	-	4350	ditto
Benybord	-	-	still higher	

IRELAND.

Curranea, Toohill, or M'Gilleycuddy's Reeks	} Kerry	3695	Kirwan
Mangerton		2693	ditto
Sliebh Donard	Down	2809	ditto
Nephin	Mayo	2630	ditto
Crow or Broagh Patrick	ditto	2660	ditto

FORESTS. Scarcely the semblance of a forest remains in Ireland; and Boate has long since observed that the woods have been greatly diminished since the entrance of the English, partly from the extension of tillage, and partly from the necessity of

of opening up the recesses of banditti. Another great cause was the consumption in domestic fuel, and in the iron manufactures, the coal mines not having been explored. Yet Boate informs us that considerable woods existed in his time in Wicklow, Wexford and Carlow, Kerry, Tipperary, and Cork. The province of Ulster also boasted of extensive forests, in the counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Antrim. The western province of Connaught, being the most remote from the new colony, was in his time stored with trees; but the most noted forests were in the counties of Mayo and Sligo.

Bogs. According to a report made to parliament by a board of gentlemen, appointed to examine the bogs in Ireland, it is estimated that they cover at least one million of acres; but as "mountain bog and bog under five hundred acres" are excluded from the computation, the surface covered by them is probably much greater. The commissioners conclude that six-sevenths of the bogs of Ireland occupy a portion of the island somewhat greater than one-fourth of its whole superficial extent, included between a line drawn from Wicklow Head to Galway, and another drawn from Howth Head to Sligo, resembling in form a broad belt, stretched across the centre of the country, with its narrowest end nearer to the capital, and gradually extending in breadth as it approaches the western ocean. This district includes a number of bogs, called in general the "Bog of Allen," which contrary to the prevailing opinion in England, is not one continued morass of immense extent, but consists of a number of bogs adjacent to each other, and all contained within the belt described by the commissioners. They all, however, lie on the west side of the Shannon, and are for the most part of that kind called Red Bog, being very different in appearance from the deep black bog found to the south of Lough Neagh in the province of Ulster, or the high mountain bogs which are seen in almost every part of the island. The origin of these masses of inert vegetable matter has given rise to many learned antiquarian and philosophical discussions, and notwithstanding all the modern discoveries, it appears to be still undetermined when or by what means they were formed. That they are not primitive or original masses of earth, appears certain, because they are found chiefly in northern countries, and always cover timber, various utensils, and coins, the two latter of which are certain indications of the hand of man previous to their existence. Fossil timber in great quantities has been dug up from many of the bogs in Ireland; and is found also in all bogs in every country of Europe. From this circumstance, many have been induced to believe, that bogs originate from decayed forests, which by

some accident or convulsion of nature have been overturned and buried. Mr. Griffith, who was employed by the Irish commissioners to survey a considerable extent of bog, states in his report, "that those bogs which fell under his observation were not produced by any cause of this kind, as trees, or the branches of trees, are rarely found in the interior of the deep and extensive bogs of Ireland, but are always met with at the edges, or near gravelly hills or islands in these bogs, lying horizontally, and in no particular direction; frequently crossing each other, and either attached to their roots or separated from them. In the latter case the stumps usually stand upright in the place where they grew, having six or eight feet of the bog sometimes above them, and three, four, or five feet, but rarely more, below their roots." It is difficult to account for this circumstance, and therefore, without ascribing the origin of bogs to decayed timber alone, it may be considered as one of the chief causes of their formation. Bogs are divided by Boate into several genera and species, forming an elaborate scale of sterility. The dry heaths are chiefly confined to the mountains. The bogs he subdivides into four descriptions: 1. The grassy, in which the water being concealed by herbage, they become extremely perilous to travellers, some of these are dry in the summer. 2. The pools of water and mire. 3. What he terms hassocky bogs, or shallow lakes studded with tufts of rushes, which are chiefly found in the province of Leinster, especially in King's and Queen's Counties; and 4. The peat moors. Hopes have been entertained of draining the bogs and converting them to agricultural purposes, but Mr. Wakefield, after an ample and elaborate view of the subject, does not consider it as presenting well founded hopes of success, to any great extent.

RIVERS. The principal rivers of Ireland are now to be noticed. Few countries abound more with springs or running streams; for, exclusive of such brooks as have their sources on the sides of hills, or from fountains on plains, of which there are many, there are others that run out of bogs, and more that issue from lakes, which are not only very serviceable in domestic uses, and for all the purposes of husbandry, but are likewise so easily adapted to machines, that windmills are very rarely met with in this country. But in regard to the rivulets that roll down from the hills, they are more subject here, than in many other places, to overflow upon sudden rains, and to swell in a very short space of time, from very small rills, to deep and dangerous torrents. The rivers of Ireland are also very numerous; but though there are several very considerable in point of size, not a few that run a pretty long

long course, and some capable of bearing even large boats many miles above their fall into the sea; yet it must be acknowledged, that rivers navigable in a like sense with the Trent, the Severn, and the Thames, are not to be found in this island.

Shannon. The chief river is the Shannon, which rising in the county of Leitrim, after running a few miles, diffuses itself so as to assume the name of Lough Allyn; issuing from thence with a much fuller stream than it entered, after a progress of several miles, it again expands its waters, so as to form Lough Eske, which, though of considerable length, is not very broad. Passing from thence, it forms another lake, called Lough Ree, fifteen miles long, and five broad. On its exit from this lough, it appears a large and beautiful river; till breaking forth again, between the counties of Tipperary and Clare, it forms Lough Derg, or Derke, eighteen miles long, and four broad. Leaving this, it rolls with a full and mighty stream for many miles, and falls at length into the sea, about fifty miles below Limerick, at a place called Knock Patrick, with so vast a body of water, that this also has been stiled a lough, though it is now simply called the Shannon; which Camden interprets Shan awn, the old river; but Baxter inclines rather to Seen aun, in the old British Synn ævon, i. e. the flow river. The whole course of this stream is upward of two hundred miles, and it is said to be seven miles broad at the mouth. In the commencement of the reign of George II., an act was passed for removing every impediment in the passage by that river, between the town of Carrick Drumsna in the county of Leitrim, and the city of Limerick. Commissioners or undertakers were appointed to prosecute, at their own cost and charges, this design, and they were authorized to impose certain tolls and duties for the repayment of the expense, and for the support of the necessary works. By a concurrence, however, of untoward circumstances, the execution of the proposed scheme was delayed for many years, and not seriously undertaken till a complete change had been made in the original plan. Instead of the commissioners or undertakers, who were first appointed, a new and perpetual council was created, under the title of "The Corporation for promoting and carrying on an Inland Navigation in Ireland;" composed of the lord-lieutenant or chief governor, the Archbishop of Armagh, the lord chancellor or lord keeper, the three other archbishops, the speaker of the house of commons for the time being, and twenty commissioners from each of the four provinces of

Ireland, with a power of filling up vacancies, as they should happen, by election.

Barrow. The Barrow, which is probably the Birgus of Ptolemy, is a noble river, and of a very long course. It rises in King's County; and running for a short space north-east, makes a kind of elbow; continuing afterwards a south-east course, it divides the King's and Queen's Counties from that of Kildare. Proceeding next through the heart of the county of Catherlogh, it separates the counties of Kilkenny and Wexford: till a little before it reaches the town of Ross, it receives the river Nore, which is sometimes written Our; and then varying its course somewhat to the west, mingles its waters with those of the Suir, in making the right arm of Waterford Haven.

Blackwater. This river, which is also called *Broadwater*, and by the natives Avonmore, is by Dr. Campbell, in opposition to Camden, supposed to be the Daurona of Ptolemy. It rises in a swampy bog, near Castle Island in Kerry, from whence it runs to Blackwater-bridge, being still but a small stream; proceeding forward about six miles farther to Cullin, thence to Ballydawly, Drishane, and so easterly to Mallow, where there is a fair stone bridge over it, and then rolls forward to Fermoy, where it has a second bridge; and thus pursuing a course due easterly till it enters the county of Waterford; passing by Lismore, whence having run in the whole near fifty miles due east, it comes to Cappoquin, where there is a bridge over it; and there making an angle, it turns to the south, proceeding in a pretty straight course ten miles further, till it falls into the sea at Youghall.

Slaney. The river Slane or Slaine rises in the south-west extremity of the county of Wicklow, and proceeding in a winding course, sometimes turning south-east, sometimes to the south-west, passes on through the county of Catherlogh, and then, in a south-east direction, divides the county of Wexford, till, with a full and swelling stream, it reaches Enniscorthy, from whence, rolling many miles smoothly in a south course, at length it makes an elbow, and then running directly east, falls into a bay of the sea a little below the town of Wexford.

Liffy. The Liffy rises about ten miles south-west from the city of Dublin, and about fifteen west from the sea: while a small stream it wanders, for some miles, south-west, through the county of Wicklow, then running directly west, it enters the county of Kildare, where it again forms an elbow, and runs away north-west, and at length due north, being then parallel to the sea, and nearly thirty miles distant. After this

this, bending north-east, it pursues its course through a pleasant country till it enters the county of Dublin, where it runs for a little way almost due north; and then turning to the east, proceeds with a full stream, and with a pretty strong current, to that city, through which, though navigable but a very little higher, it passes with a full body of water under two very large and fine bridges, and falls into the Bay of Dublin, at a place called Ringsend.

Boyne. In the King's County rises the river Boyne, the Bovinda, or Buvinda, of Ptolemy, and also called Boandus. It is quickly joined by so many rivulets, that, running on north-east, becomes a very considerable river in its passage through the county of Kildare, and still stronger in its course, and more beautiful in its appearance, when it enters the rich county of East Meath, where it waters Trim, the county town, and then passes on to Navan and Slane. From the latter of these it proceeds to Drogheda, which it divides, and falls into the sea about two miles below it. The Boyne will be ever famous for the decisive battle, July 1. 1690.

Bann. The river Bann, poetically called Banna, rises in the plain called the Deers, or King's Meadow, in the northern part of that ridge of mountains stiled the Morne, in the county of Down, and, swelled by various little brooks, soon becomes a large stream. It then takes a serpentine course to within two miles east of Rathfryland; thence pursuing still a north-west course, and having several fair bridges over it, the silver Bann comes at length to Portadown, where it makes a most stately appearance, is joined there by the canal of Newry, and a few miles further, falls into Lough Neagh at Bannfoot Ferry, after running about thirty miles. Out of that lake, continuing its former direction, it breaks forth again above Toome Castle, and having forced a passage over a ridge of rocks, called the Salmon Leap, rushes with impetuous force into the sea, at what is, from the river, stiled Bann Haven, a few miles below Colerain.

Bandon. This river in the county of Cork is mentioned by Spenser in the *Fairy Queen*; "The pleasant Bandon crown'd with many a wood." It was anciently named Glasheen, and rises in the mountains of Carbery; passing by Dunmanway and Iniskeen, and then through an elegant park, to Bandon; after traversing that large and well built town, and passing under the bridge, it winds north-east to Innishannon, where is also another stone bridge; it becomes navigable and falls into the Bandon above Innishannon, at Lisabroder.

Lee. The river Lee, stiled anciently Luvius, though Camden thinks it the Daurona of Ptolemy, rises out of a lake in the

west of Muskerry, called Gangane Barra; and running by several high mountains, at length expands in Lough Allua; whence being much contracted at its exit it flows very briskly to Inchigreelagh, where there is a stone bridge. In its whole course it may run about twenty-six Irish miles; and receiving many rivulets, and some pretty large rivers, it becomes a broad, strong and deep stream, which however is not navigable higher than Cork, on account of the Wears. The Lee being joined by the river Glanmire, a little below Cork, diffuses itself so as to form a commodious haven, falling at length into the sea about fifteen miles below that city.

Suir. The river *Suir*, or, as it is sometimes spelt *Shure*, or *Showr*, rises at the foot of Banduff mountains, in the county of Tipperary, where also rises the *Nore*; but they quickly part, and the *Suir* proceeds south-west to Clonacanny; thence it passes through Thurles; and growing a considerable and very beautiful stream, has a stone bridge over it at Thurles, Holy Cross, and some other places.

Newry. Newry river is not considerable from the length of its course, or its size. It rises not far from Rathfryland, in the barony of Upper Iveagh, and runs into Carlingford Bay.

Lagan. The river Lagan, or rather the bay into which it falls, is the Vinderius of Ptolemy. This river rises in two small streams, out of the ridge of mountains called Slieve Croob, in the barony of Upper Iveagh, which unite about two miles south-east of Dromore, through which the stream, now become considerable, passes under a bridge of two arches. It proceeds thence, through the bridge of Gill Hall; and being soon after augmented by another rivulet from two loughs, south of Dromore, passes under the bridges of Donogheloney, Gihon, and Magherelin, where it turns north-east, and rolls on till it arrives near Moyrah, flows next under Spence's Bridge, then under the bridge of the Maze, passes through Lisburn, Brumbridge, Shaw's Bridge, all in the county of Antrim, and at length under the Bridge of Belfast, after which it empties itself into Carrickfergus Bay, having run in the whole a course of thirty miles.

Derg. The river Derg, supposed to be so called from the oaks growing about it, flows out of a lough of the same name, in the county of Donegal, rolling on many miles in a north-east direction, till it receives the river *Finny*, which runs also out of a lough of the same name in the northern part of the county, and a third river, called the *Mourne*. These waters, thus collected, take the name of the river *Foyle*, and proceeding still north-east, move on to Lifford, in the county of Donegal, pass

pass afterward by St. Johnstown, and the city of Derry, below which, at the distance of about four miles, they expand themselves, and uniting with the sea, produce that large salt water lake, known by the name of Lough Foyle.

POLITICAL DIVISION.

IRELAND is divided into four provinces, Ulster, Leinster, Connaught, and Munster. Each of these in ancient times was a kingdom governed by its own monarch, while one general sovereign, king, or lord paramount, enjoyed dominion over them all as king of Ireland.

These provinces are divided into thirty-two counties, which are subdivided into 252 baronies, comprising 2,436 parishes.

ULSTER.

THE province of Ulster, the most northerly in Ireland, is bounded on the north by the Deucalidonian sea; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by St. George's Channel and the Irish sea; and on the south and south-west by the provinces of Leinster and Connaught. It forms an area of 8,375 English square miles, and contains nine counties, viz. Antrim, Armagh, Cavan, Fermanagh, Donegal, Down, Londonderry, Monaghan, and Tyrone.

ANTRIM. Antrim is a maritime county, bounded on the north and east by the sea, on the south by the county of Down, and on the west by that of Londonderry, forty-five miles in length from north to south, and twenty-four from east to west; it contains 1,018 English square miles. It is pretty fruitful, though incumbered with bogs and marshes in the north. It contains the baronies of *Ballie-Cari, Dunlace, Kilconway, Tome, Antrim, Glenarm, Carrickfergus, Belfast, and Killallagh.*

The chief natural curiosity of this county is the *Giant's Causeway*, the formation of which has given rise to many and various opinions. It is situated under high cliffs, and consists of rocks composed of pentagonal basaltic pillars, standing in a perpendicular direction, which extend a great way into the ocean. It is seen to most advantage at low water. Recollecting that a similar production, the celebrated isle of Staffa, remained unnoticed till the latter part of the eighteenth century, it is the less surprising that the Giant's Causeway should be an object of recent observation, and have escaped the notice of Giraldus Cambrensis, Stanyhurst, and even of the accurate and ingenious

Ware: the first account is that given by Sir R. Buckley in a letter to Dr. Lister 1693. This surprising collection of basaltic pillars is about eight miles north-east from Coleraine. The adjacent coast is verdant but precipitous; and from it the causeway projects into the sea, to an unknown extent. The part explored is about 600 feet in length; the breadth from 240 to 120; the height from 16 to 36 feet above the level of the strand. It consists of many thousand pillars, mostly in a vertical position, some of them high; others broken, and, for a considerable space, of an equal height, so as to form a pavement. They are closely compacted together; though their shapes are various, trigonal, tetragonal, pentagonal. The pillars are rarely composed of one entire piece, but mostly consist of short or long joints, either plane, or concave, corresponding with convex. The pillars are from 15 to 24 inches, or more, in diameter. The adjacent shore is mostly the common crag; but there are a few irregular pillars on the east; and toward the north-east what is called the organ, in the side of a hill, consisting of fifty pillars; that in the middle forty feet high, the others gradually diminishing; similar pillars are also found a mile and a half inland, four miles to the west of the Giant's Causeway.

The grand features of the northern coast of Antrim are the capes of Bengore and Fairhead, precipitous promontories distant about eight miles. *Bengore* is composed of several smaller capes and bays; and contains a vast quantity of columnar basalt. The cape called Pleskin presents a magnificent gallery, or colonnade, about 60 feet high, with a lower gallery about 50. The lower ranges contain the most sharp and exact columns. The promontory of Fairhead consists of an immense rocky promontory, rising higher and higher from the inland country, till it terminates abruptly in a perpendicular cliff of gigantic height. According to the account of Mr. Staples, jun. of Liffon, by whom it has been measured, it is forty fathoms, or 240 feet above the rough ground which stretches out into the sea. By another account the measurement of the Fairhead, east of Bally Castle, appears to be, perpendicular face, 283 feet; total altitude from the level of the sea, 631 feet. One of the columns is a quadrangular prism, thirty-three feet by thirty-six on the sides, and about 200 feet perpendicular height. This column is perhaps the largest in the world. The specific gravity of the basaltes, of which this stone is composed, is about 2.8, from which the weight of the prism may be readily estimated. This basaltic prism is greater than the pedestal which supports the statue of Peter the Great at Petersburg, and much greater than the shaft of Pompey's pillar at Alexandria.

The

The principal towns are *Belfast*, *Carrickfergus*, *Antrim*, *Lisburn*, *Ballymena*, and *Ballymoney*.

Belfast stands on the west side of the river Lagan; it is supposed to have derived its name from the ferry which formerly subsisted there over that river. As this part of Ireland was not thoroughly subdued till the time of James the First, this place was far from being considerable until, in the next reign, the Earl of Stafford made a purchase of the customs in the bay, which had been anciently granted to the town of Carrickfergus; and ever after that this town throve at the expence of the other. In 1682 the bridge was begun over the Lagan, which has twenty-one arches, and is solidly built of free-stone. Many circumstances have contributed to render this a large, flourishing, and populous place. The country about it is well peopled and well cultivated, the bulk of the inhabitants are protestants, and very industrious. It has a great trade with Scotland, and the West Indies; these, with the prodigious progress of the linen manufacture in its neighbourhood, and the cambric manufacture, have enabled Belfast to become the fourth, if not the third town in the kingdom. There are upwards of seven hundred looms in it, employed in cotton, cambric, sail cloth, and linen; beside manufactures, of glass, sugar, and earthenware.

Carrickfergus, which was also called *Knockfergus*, is a sea port situated on the north-west coast of an arm of the sea called Carrickfergus Bay, or Belfast Lough. The assizes for the county are held here, as likewise for the town, which is a county of itself. It was once the principal sea port of the north of Ireland, and defended by a castle, with a garrison; but the port is now little frequented, and the garrison removed. King William landed here in 1690, and in February 1760 the town was plundered by Thurot. A franciscan monastery is supposed to have been founded here in 1232.

Antrim, which gives name to the county, is situate at the north-east part of Lough Neagh, from whence is a communication to the sea northward by the Bann, and eastward by the river called *Six-mile-water*, and southward by the Newry canal. It is a place of some trade, and has a corporation.

Lisburn, formerly called *Lisnagarry*, situate on the river Lagan, possesses particular privileges for its fidelity in 1641. It is a large handsome town, with a good church, which in consequence of the cathedrals of Down and Connor being in ruins, was made a cathedral for both dioceses by patent, 17th of October 1662.

Ballymeara and *Ballymoney* are in no wise remarkable.

The

The principal river in this county is the Bann, its houses are estimated at 21,922, the inhabitants at 160,000.

ARMAGH.

ARMAGH is an inland county, bounded on the north by the county of Tyrone and Lough Neagh, on the east by the county of Down, on the south by Louth, and on the west by the counties of Tyrone and Monaghan; containing 451 English square miles. In the southern parts of it is a chain of black, and partly uncultivated mountains, called the Fews, thinly inhabited, and presenting a dreary and melancholy aspect. In the neighbourhood of the city, however, are numerous inclosures, cultivated fields, and other signs of an abundant population. The county is divided into the baronies of *Onealan*, *Towraney*, *Armagh*, *Fewes*, and *Orior*. The principal towns are Armagh, Lurgan, Blackwater-town, Charlemont, and Portadown.

Armagh situated on the river Callen, is the see of an archbishop, who is primate of all Ireland; the capital of the county, and the place where the assizes are held. This city was in a state of utter decay, until it was renovated and beautified, and became a pretty town of good size, and well inhabited, through the munificence of Richard Robinson, D.D., Baron Rokeby, late lord primate. He built a handsome archiepiscopal palace, and a noble house for the school, which is one of the royal foundations of Charles I., and extremely well endowed. To these His Grace added a public library, a complete observatory, with a liberal establishment for the support of an astronomer; and secured the permanency of his endowments, by several acts of parliament. The lands with which the school of Armagh is endowed, contain, as appears by the survey made in 1771, 1,530 acres, English measure, including roads, lakes, rivers, and also about 100 acres of bog.

The other towns are little worthy of description. The county is watered by the Bann; the Blackwater and the Callen; its houses are computed to be 21,983; its inhabitants 120,000.

CAVAN.

CAVAN is an inland county, bounded on the north by the counties of Fermanagh and Monaghan and Meath, on the south by Meath and Longford, and on the west by Leitrim: it contains

tains 758 English square miles, and is divided into the baronies of *Tullagha*, *Tullahoncho*, *Cavan*, *Tollagarvay*, *Clonchy*, *Castle Raghen*, and *Clonomoghan*. The soil is chiefly a stiff clay, which produces naturally a coarse rushy pasture; but in some places it has been much amended by cultivation. The surface of the country is so remarkably uneven, that a level spot is rare to be met with; a great part of it is open, bleak, and dreary; but from *Cavan* to *Lough Erne* is extremely well wooded and picturesque. Though many of these hills are high and barren, yet none merit the appellation of mountains except *Brucehill*, in the southern extremity, the lofty *Sliebh Ruffel*, which lies partly in *Fermanagh*, and the mountain of *Ballynageeragh*, which block up the north-west angle. The waters which proceed from the lakes in *Westmeath* flow through this county till they discharge themselves into *Lough Erne*. In some places they constitute small lakes, in others retain the form of rivers, and in many cases they contribute, of course, to the formation of beautiful and picturesque scenery. There is a large lake called *Shaalan*, which is seven miles long, but of various breadths, from half a mile to four.

The principal towns are *Cavan*, which is the shire town, *Belturbet*, which is pleasantly situated at the south end of *Lough Erne*, and *Cootehill*.

The county contains 30 parishes; the houses are said to be 16,314; the inhabitants 81,570.

DONEGAL.

DONEGAL, formerly called *Tyrconnel*, is bounded on the west and north by the sea, on the east by the counties of *Londonderry* and *Tyrone*, and on the south by the county of *Fermanagh*, and an arm of the sea, called the *Bay of Donegal*, about seventy miles in length, and from ten to thirty in breadth: it is computed to contain 1,725 English miles, and has forty-two parishes, 23,531 houses, and 140,000 inhabitants. It is a very mountainous country, and is nearly divided by a high ridge stretching east and west from *Tiellen-head* to the county of *Tyrone*, and in which there are three passes. The whole western coast consists of a range of mountainous rocks, which in some places throw out branches that extend to the sea, or run between borders of sand which has a peculiar whiteness, owing, perhaps, to its being formed from fragments of granite washed down from the rocks, and reduced to its present state by attrition. Between the mountains, in the interior of the county, are tracts of bog; and, at a former period, it is not improbable

improbable that these were forests ; but, at present, a traveller may proceed many a mile, without seeing the least vestige of a tree. At Horn Head is a remarkable cavern, called M'Swine's Gun, which is situated in a rocky cliff of about sixty feet in height. In this cliff a small bay has been formed, the sides of which are bordered by rocks, rising almost in a perpendicular direction. The lower stratum of these rocks consists of porous sandstone, in which the violence and continual buffeting of the waves has formed a cavern, from which an aperture proceeds to the summit of the cliff. When the wind comes from the north-west, it blows directly into this small bay ; and the billows being driven with great violence into the cavern, the water, forced to find a passage through the aperture, rises to the top of the cliff, from which it precipitates itself back into the sea with a most tremendous noise. The rock, where the water runs over, has assumed a blue colour, which gives to the whole a volcanic appearance. To the east stands the Arigal, said to be the highest mountain in the province ; it consists of mountain spar, and is shaped like a sugar loaf. The most remarkable river in Donegal is the Erne, and there are besides, the Finn, the Dale, and the Guibarra. At the top of Mount-Alt is a lough bearing the same name. The views here are truly magnificent. Lough Swilly is also in this county. The baronies into which Donegal is divided are *Enish Owen*, *Killmakrena*, *Raphoe*, or *Lagen*, *Boylagh*, or *Bannagh*, and *Tyrebagh*.

The principal towns are the following. *Ballyshannon*, the county town, situate at the extremity of a good harbour, to which it gives its name, and which has a bridge of fourteen arches over the river Erne, and enjoys a considerable trade.

Donegal, which gives its name to the county, is situated at the mouth of the river Esk, on a large bay of the Atlantic, on the west coast of the island, called from the town, *The Bay of Donegal*. Its antiquities are, a fine old castle, and a monastery for Franciscan Friars of the strict observance. The other towns are Killibegs, Lifford, and St. Johnstown.

DOWN.

THIS county is bounded on the north by the county of Antrim and Belfast Lough, on the east and south by the Irish sea, and on the west by the county of Armagh ; about forty miles in length from north-east to south-west, and about 25 in breadth, containing 936 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Ards*, *Castlereagh*, *Dufferin*, *Lekeale*, *Kindlearty*, *Lower Evagh*, *Upper Evagh*, and *Mowrane*.

The

The surface of the county is irregular. In the centre the Mourne mountains, the second in point of height in Ireland, rear their lofty summits; and this grand feature produces a very striking difference in regard to some parts of the county. To the north of these mountains, and on the western side of it, comprehending Hillsborough, Banbridge, Moyallan, and round toward Newry, the land is in a high state of cultivation, and inhabited by a middle class of opulent manufacturers, whose appearance and habitations would do credit to any country in Europe. The whole tract is embellished with plantations, and every thing exhibits evident signs of increased population and industry. The banks of the rivers Bann and Laggan are covered with bleach-fields, where the whiteness of the linen spread out, contrasted with the greenness of the surrounding sward, produces an effect on the eye not easily described. All the views of Belfast Lough are on a grand scale.

The number of houses is computed at 36,636; of inhabitants at 204,500.

Down or *Downpatrick*, the county town, is situated on the south-west branch of Strangford Lough. It is a town, or rather city, of no great size, but boasts of considerable antiquity. The cathedral being in ruins, a subscription was entered into for rebuilding it, and the work was begun, but arrested in its progress by the failure of supplies.

Bangor is situated on the south side of Belfast Lough.

Newry is situated on a river of the same name, which runs into Carlingford Bay; vessels carrying 200 tons can come up to the town, and, by means of a canal, from Newry to the river Bann, an inland navigation is open for vessels of 70 tons' burthen. Here is a very considerable linen manufacture, and considerable trade in shipping. In the year 1689, this town was burned by the Duke of Berwick.

The other towns in this county are *Hillsborough*, *Killyleagh*, *Newtown*, *Strangford*, and *Donaghadee*, where the packets from Scotland arrive.

FERMANAGH.

THIS county is bounded on the north by the counties of Tyrone and Donegal, on the east by the county of Monaghan, on the south by Cavan and Leitrim, and on the west by Leitrim and Donegal; about 35 miles long, and 27 in its greatest breadth; containing 694 English square miles, and divided into two parts by the extensive lake Lough Erne; it consists of eight baronies, *Lurge*, *Maghereboy*, *Terokenedy*, *Canawley*, *Maghere*, *Kierkelly*, *Krocknie*,

Krocknie, and *Coole*; and is computed to possess 12,000 houses, and 73,000 people. The surface of the county is hilly, rugged, and uneven, some parts are mountainous, but yield pasture for cattle, and no doubt with proper management much might be made fertile in corn: the linen manufacture and raising corn are the chief employment of the inhabitants.

The grand feature in the face of this county, says Mr. Wakefield, is *Lough Erne*, which stretches throughout its own length, forming two large lakes in places embayed by mountains; which, in some parts, extend to the edge of the water, and in others receding from it, are seen at a distance. Both sides of this noble sheet of water are, therefore, hilly and uneven; but the country towards Leitrim forms one extensive range of mountains, of which Belmore, swelling out its massy sides towards the lake, is the most conspicuous. There are several other lakes of inferior size in this county, and a great many magnificent seats, which are highly worthy of notice. The island called Belleisle in this lough, contains 112 acres. Adjacent to it is another island, nearly of the same extent; and both exhibit a most agreeable prospect, being covered with thriving woods of ash, oak, beech, and firs. Immediately to the westward, within about a quarter of a mile of West Island, is a range of eleven other islands, all covered to the water's edge with timber, and stretching directly across the lake. The islands in these loughs lie at various distances from each other, some of them being half a mile apart. The passages between them are said to be as wide, and very similar to, the Straits of Sunda, in the East Indies. Kelligowan, which is one of them, contains forty acres of land, and produces oak, ash, firs, willows, and hazel, of an extraordinary size, intermixed with briars and underwood. Beyond this is another island, far more extensive, called Ennismore, and containing 1,400 acres. Among these islands, the scene is continually varying in all directions; the expanse of water is completely lost, and in many places the appearance is exactly the same as that which occurs to those sailing either up or down a large river, bordered by woody banks, and pursuing its sluggish course amidst distant mountains. Yet these reaches are short; and in a moment, on turning round a point of land, the traveller is suddenly and unexpectedly astonished by a wide expanse of water, and numerous wooded islands, like clumps of trees, emerging from the bosom of the lake. The fresh green colour of Knockninny, Belleisle, and the West Island, together with the distant prospect of the Black Mountain, form a delightful assemblage of objects, in which the softer beauties of nature are so blended with the sublime, as

to excite a sensation of pleasure mixed with astonishment. In a word, the beauties of Lough Erne charm by their variety, and the continued change of scenery. Toward Castle Archdall the lake widens, so as to assume the appearance almost of a sea. Landing on an island called Ennismackeent, from the centre Lough Erne is seen as if the spectator were standing in a panorama, 27 islands being full in view. On looking back toward the east, he commands the Gully and other wooded islands, together with the principal reach, half a mile wide, extending through them towards Enniskillen. On the right the highland; on the left the promontory of Ross-clear, and beyond it Ross Fadd. To the north Castle Archdall, with the woods belonging to the domain, and to the west a noble bay of great extent, the shores of which are bounded on the south-west by high land rising into a lofty mountain, which sinks down as it stretches out of sight to the south. To the south-west of this island, so full of picturesque beauty, is a much venerated Roman Catholic burying ground, with a large stone-cross standing on a pedestal at its entrance. The falls of Lough Erne at Ballyshannon are much admired; but the previous fall of Beeleck presents the most interesting scenery and views. The country round Beeleck is truly delightful; the road from Church Hill, forming on the whole a *coup-d'œil* highly interesting, as it commands the widest part of Lough Erne to the right, and above it a mountainous ridge of limestone, clothed with grassy verdure nearly to the top. In front, the wooded peninsula, at Castle Caldwell, appears in full view; and the road being on a very elevated situation, the greater part of the lake, forming a most extensive sheet of water, presents a scene of uncommon magnificence. Afterwards the lake becomes contracted, and exhibits the appearance of a river with flat sides.

Enniskillen or *Inniskillen*, the principal town of the county, stands on an island in Lough Erne. It has a corporation and a free-school, which was founded and endowed by Charles the First. The school lands contain about 3,360 acres *English*, of which 2,548 are arable and pasture, and are situate about six or eight miles from the town.

LONDONDERRY.

THIS county was called Coleraine, and sometimes Krine. Its present name is derived from Derry, its principal city, to which London has been prefixed ever since James the First granted the principal part of the county, with the towns of London-

Londonderry and Coleraine to the citizens of London, in consideration of their settling an English colony after the rebellion, in the north of Ireland, under the name of the Society of the Governors and Assistants at London, of the new Plantation of Ulster, in the Realm of Ireland. The county is bounded on the north by Lough Foyle and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by the county of Antrim, on the south-west by the county of Tyrone, and on the west by Donegal, extending in its greatest dimensions 32 miles from north to south, and about the same from east to west, and measuring 837 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Coleraine*, *Loghinsholm*, *Keneught*, *Tyrekeri*, and the liberty of *Londonderry*, in which are 31 parishes with about 25,000 houses, and 125,000 inhabitants. Its principal waters are the river Foyle and Lough Foyle. The country although not incumbered with mountains of the first magnitude, may be called mountainous, the eminences presenting neither roughness nor green herbage, but something between both, which may be called uncultivated vegetation; while the lower parts are inundated with water, and in some places have been converted into bogs.

The linen manufacture flourishes here.

Londonderry, or *Derry*, the capital of the county, is a city and sea-port, situate on the west side of Lough Foyle. It was built in the reign of James I. by the company of London Adventurers, and surrounded with strong walls, which are an English mile in circumference, and furnished with five gates. There is a cathedral, built in 1633, the most remarkable feature of which is two towers, rising at the eastern end. It was built by the Irish society. This place is supplied with water by means of pipes, which proceed from a high ridge of hills on the opposite side of Lough Foyle. These pipes extend along a wooden bridge, 1,080 feet long, the building of which cost 11,000*l.*; the timber being brought from America. Lough Foyle stretches a considerable way inwards below Strabane. The episcopal palace, which stands within the walls, was once used as a barrack; but repaired and fitted up for the bishop. Without the city are excellent gardens belonging to the see, and near them is a banquetting room, built in a whimsical style, the windows of which command a most delightful view of Lough Foyle, contracting its breadth as it proceeds into the country, and winding through a reach of great beauty; they have the advantage also of overlooking the domain on the opposite side. The view of the city from the Derry side of the bridge is very fine. The bridge is a striking object: and the town, rising upon the hill, backed by more beyond it, with the shining expanse of water in Lough Foyle; the ship-
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ping in it, and various other objects of less importance, form altogether a grand and impressive picture.

The other towns are *Coleraine*, situated on the river Banne, which has a salmon fishery, *Newtown*, *Limavaddy*, and *Cumber*.

MONAGHAN.

MONAGHAN is bounded on the east by Armagh, on the west by Fermanagh, on the north by Tyrone, on the south by Cavan, and on the south-east by Louth and part of East Meath, in Leinster. It is thirty miles in length, from north to south, and from eleven to twenty in breadth, from east to west; containing 809 English square miles, and forming nineteen parishes, with about 21,523 houses, and 118,000 souls. The baronies into which it is divided, are *Trough*, *Monaghan*, *Dartree*, *Cremourne*, and *Farny Donaghmoyne*. The face of this county is hilly; but the hills seem as if scattered in an irregular manner, without forming continued ridges or chains. The soil is in some degree superior to that of Cavan, and the country exhibits the appearance of more corn and flax.

The town of Monaghan, the capital of the county, has little worthy of notice.

TYRONE.

THE county of Tyrone, otherwise called Tir-Owen or Tireoghan, is bounded on the north-east by London Derry, on the east by Lough Neagh, on the south-east by Armagh, on the south by Monaghan, on the south-west by Fermanagh, and on the west by Donegal. It contains 1,271 English square miles, and is about forty-three miles in its greatest length from north-west to south-east, and from eighteen to thirty-three in breadth. It comprises the baronies of *Strabane*, *Omagh*, *Clogher*, and *Dungannon*, in which are 35 parishes with about 28,700 inhabitants. The soil varies exceedingly; in some parts it is rich and fertile, in some rough and mountainous, but in general cultivated. The linen manufacture flourishes in many of the towns; and near Dungannon are some collieries.

The chief towns are *Strabane*, situated on the river Morne, a populous and well-built place, *Dungannon*, which has a free-school endowed with 1,600 acres of land, *Augher*, situate on the river Blackwater, and *Clogher*, which is an episcopal see.

PROVINCE OF CONNAUGHT.

CONNAUGHT is the most western province of Ireland, nearly surrounded by the Shannon and the ocean: it forms an area equal to 7,191 English square miles, and comprehends five counties, Galway, Leitrim, Mayo, Roscommon, and Sligo.

GALWAY.

THIS county is next to Cork the most considerable in point of size in the kingdom, but the least populous; it is bounded on the north by Mayo and Roscommon; on the east by Roscommon, King's County, and Tipperary; on the south by the county of Clare, and an arm of the sea, called Galway Bay, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; about 76 miles from east to west, and 40 from north to south, forming an area of 2,593 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Ballinabinch, Rosse, Moycullin, Clare, Downamore, Ballinacorney, Kilmain, Tiaquin, Killconnel, Clonmacowen, Loughbreagh, Kiltartan*, and the Isles of *Arran*; which contain 116 parishes, and 28 churches. The number of houses is 28,212, and about 142,000 souls.

In appearance this county is exceedingly various. The north-west part of it, consisting chiefly of the barony of Connemara, remains uncultivated and nearly in a state of nature; with scarcely any roads through it. In the inhabited parts there are more gentlemen's seats than in any other district in Ireland; but it contains none remarkable for their magnificence except Dalystown. The substratum throughout the greater part of the country is limestone, on which account the verdure is exceedingly luxuriant. In general the fields are separated by stone fences. Dr. Beaufort has given an accurate description of the face of the country. Alluding to the thinness of inhabitants, he says, this very scanty population may in some degree be accounted for by the rude state of the three baronies on the west of Lough Corrib, which amount to a third part of the whole county, as they contain about 341,600 acres. The lake itself covers 31,300 acres. The extensive country on this side the lake is flat, with the exception of a few fertile hills of no great height, and some low mountains on the borders of Clare. The soil is warm and fertile, covering at no great depth a stratum of limestone rock, which in the baronies of Dunkellin and Kiltartan, and in many other places, rises so thick above the surface as to render those parts unfit for tillage, though they are excellent for pasture.

ture. Few ditches are to be seen in this county, the fields being chiefly inclosed with dry stone wall *, which gives the country a dreary aspect.

The western part of the county is of quite a different character from the rest. The barony of Moycullen, which is also called Jarconnaught, contains some good land on the sea coast and along the beautiful shore of Lough Corrib; but the heart of this barony is an assemblage of unreclaimable rock and mountain. The rocks at Oughterard and in the bed of the river Fuogh, of which there are immense masses, are all a black and white marble, equal at least in beauty with that of Kilkenny; yet there is seldom employment for more than one solitary artist in working up a few chimney pieces. Lough Corrib somewhat resembles Lough Erne in its form, and extends 20 miles in length, being 11 wide in the broadest part; in the middle it is contracted to a small channel, which is crossed by a ferry at Knock.† There is a fresh water muscle in this lake that produces occasionally some few pearls. The large barony of Ballynahinch, which is better known by the name of Connamara, abounds with fine harbours, but is also extremely mountainous. The hills of Ourred and Cashel are very high, and the vast ridge called Beannabeola, or the twelve pins, which is a well known sea mark, consists almost of perpendicular rocks. At the foot of this ridge, close to the little village of Ballynahinch, a charming lake spreads itself for some miles; and on the river which runs from it into Roundstone Bay, there is a great salmon fishery. On the sides of hills and in villages, which are watered by rivers and small lakes, and sheltered in some places by the venerable remains of ancient woods, the soil is mostly inclined to a black bog; but gravel, sand, or rock, lie at no greater depth than from one to three feet below the surface. Great quantites of kelp are made along the coast; and by manuring with sea-wreck the land is rendered very productive to the scattered families that inhabit it, who are all little farmers and hardy fishermen. The northern part of Ballynahinch and the barony of Ross are called Joyces country, and inhabited chiefly by a clan of that name. Ross is also extremely rough; Mamtrasna, on the borders of Mayo, is very high, and Ben-Levagh at the north-west angle of Lough Corrib is a stupendous mountain. Yet the borders of the lake, the shore of the Killeries, and the valley through which the river Bealnebrack runs, are pretty well peopled, and the soil such as would amply repay the pains and expence of good cultivation.

* The same fences prevail in a great part of Roscommon, of Mayo, and of Clare.

† A great number of concealed rocks, render the navigation of this lake dangerous to those who are not well acquainted with it.

This county, which reaches from the sea to the Shannon, is well watered by rivers and lakes: several of the rivers are in part of their course subterraneous. The Black River, on the bounds of Mayo, dips for about three miles near the village of Shrule. The Clare and the Moyne unite their waters under ground, alternately appearing and retiring from view at the Turlachmore, which in winter forms a lake, and in summer a beautiful and sound sheep walk, upwards of six miles in length and two in breadth. Near Gort there are a vast number of these *swallows*, in which some part of almost every river and brook in the neighbourhood is engulphed. The river Guftnamakin dips several times, and after a concealed course of two miles, rises on the beach below high water mark, and discharges itself among the rocks in the Bay of Kinvarra. Lough Reagh is a fine piece of water, and Lough Contra, near the borders of Clare, is said to possess all the beauties that hills, woods, and islands can impart to water.

The maritime advantages of this county must not be omitted. The vast bay of Galway is sheltered at the entrance by the three southern isles of Arran. The sound between these islands is a safe road, and a number of inlets on the coast, as well as the harbour of Galway, are sufficiently deep for the reception of merchant ships; but are more frequented by coasters and fishing boats than by vessels in the foreign trade. The indented shores of Connamara abound in well sheltered havens; — those of Kilkerran, Birturby, Roundstone, and Ballynakill, are the largest; and the Killeries are at the northern extremity of this district.

The principal towns are Galway, Tuam, Ballinasloe, and Loughreagh.

Galway, the capital, is advantageously situate for commerce, on a bay to which it gives name, in the Atlantic Ocean. It is surrounded with ancient walls, which are hastening to decay; the houses are generally well built. It was formerly the first commercial town in Ireland, and has now a considerable trade. The port is very commodious and safe, but so distant from the city that lighters are necessary to carry goods into the town.

Tuam, a city by title, as containing the cathedral, is but a village in fact, and the cathedral a mere parish church.

LEITRIM.

LEITRIM is bounded on the north by the bay of Donegal, on the north-east by Fermanagh, on the south-east by Cavan and Longford, and on the south-west by Roscommon and Sligo; about 42 miles in length, from north-west to south-east, and from 6 to 16 broad, and comprizes 604 English square miles.

miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Mobill*, *Leitrim*, *Carrigallen*, *Rusclogher*, and *Dromahaire*. The houses are 10,993, the inhabitants are computed at 76,630. The county is almost entirely covered by groups of mountains, which afford only herbage for the cattle. The vallies between them contain several lakes, such as Lough Allen, Clean Lough, and Lough Melvyn, which give birth to various rivers, some of them of considerable size. The Shannon is said to take its rise here at Lough Clean, though the honour of producing this noble stream is claimed by a spot near Florence Court, in the county of Fermanagh.

The town of *Leitrim*, which is the capital of the county, is not entitled to notice.

MAYO.

THIS county is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean and the county of Sligo, on the west by Roscommon, on the south by Galway, and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, extending 49 miles from north to south, and 44 from east to west; and comprizing 233 English square miles, including about two thirds of Lough Mask, cut off by a straight line drawn through it, to the boundaries of the county. The baronies into which it is divided are *Tirawly*, *Erris*, *Burishboole*, *Gallen*, *Costello*, *Clonmorris*, *Kilmair*, *Carragh*, and *Morisk*; these form 68 parishes, about 27,970 houses, and 140,000 inhabitants.

The north-west part of this county, *Erris*, is mountainous, boggy, and destitute of roads. It contains two mountains of great height, *Crow*, or *Croagh Patrick*, and *Mount Nephin*, the former of which rises like a pyramid to a great height, and may be seen at an immense distance. The elevation of this mountain above the level of the sea is said to be 2,666 feet, and that of *Nephin* 2,640. These mountains hold the fourth rank among the mountains of Ireland; *McGillycuddy's Reeks*, and *Mangerton* in *Kerry*, and the *Mourne mountains* in *Downe*, all being higher. In their general appearance the districts of the county do not exhibit any striking marks of improvement; they shew bad tillage and a thin population. The people in general dress in woollen cloths of a dark colour, and their cabins have a miserable appearance. Timber, it seems, would grow well if encouraged, but it is not so. There are many lakes in this county which generally extend over a bottom of limestone, and communicate with each other under ground. Toward *Killala* there are some parts which exhibit rich pasture, and seem well adapted for grazing. "In the flat country which borders upon

the lakes of Mask and Carrek," says Dr. Beaufort, "there are many miles of rocky ground, which at a distance appear like one immense sheet of white stone; but upon a nearer inspection of these singular rocks they are perceived to stand in parallel lines from one to three feet above the surface, like flag stones hitched in the ground upon their edges, and however they may vary in shape, size, and distance, they are all calcareous, and have all the same direction. Fissures of a great depth are found in some of the narrowest interstices; but in general the verdure between them is beautiful, and the pasture excellent for sheep. Large caverns and subterraneous waters are also frequent in this part of the country, especially near Cong. At the back of that small village a very broad river rushes at once from beneath a sloping bank, and after a rapid course of about a mile loses itself in Lough Corrib. It is supposed to be the outlet of a subterraneous channel through which the superfluous waters of Lough Mask and Lough Carrah are discharged into Corrib. This rocky part of Mayo abounds also with *turlachs*, as they are called in Irish: These are plains, some of them very extensive, which, having no visible communication with any brooks or rivers, in the winter are covered with water, and become in the summer a rich and firm pasturage, the water rising and retiring through rocky cliffs in the bottoms. There are many fine lakes in this county; lake Conn, at the foot of Mount Nephin, is nine miles long; Lough Mask is longer by two miles, and considerably broader.

Castlebar, the principal town, is well built and populous, and carries on a considerable trade in linen; it is said to be one of the neatest towns in Ireland. Lord Lucan, the proprietor of the town and adjacent country, has built a large linen hall, over which is a handsome assembly room. The town has also a hotel, and a charity school for 60 girls.

ROSCOMMON.

Is bounded on the north by Sligo and Leitrim, on the east by Leitrim, Longford, and Westmeath, on the south by King's County, and on the west by Galway and Mayo; 47 miles long from north to south, and from 9 to 29 broad from east to west; forming an area of 891 English square miles. Its baronies are *Roscommon*, *Boyle*, *Athlone*, *Ballintobar*, *Moycarne*, and *Bal-limoe*. It has fifty parishes, about 17,140 houses, and 86,000 inhabitants.

The substratum of the county consists generally of limestone, and stone fences are employed to inclose and separate the fields.

Its

Its most prominent features are rich and beautiful pastures. There are extensive bogs, and indeed the whole face of the country exhibits either bogs or green fields, and as the grass springs from a calcareous soil, the verdure is exceedingly luxuriant. At Longford, near the mansion of Lord Boyle, is a beautiful lake of five miles by four, which fills the bottom of a gentle valley, almost of a circular form, bounded very boldly by the mountains.

Elphin is a bishop's see; *Athlone*, a more considerable place, was once so; it is placed on the Shannon, and has a castle, a stone bridge, and a charter school for forty boys. *Roscommon*, the shire town, sometimes called *Affilyn*, is a mean place. *Boyle* is situated on the river *Buelle* or *Boyle*, over which there are two stone bridges.

SLIGO.

THIS maritime county is bounded on the north by the sea, on the east by the counties of Leitrim and Roscommon, and on the south and west by Mayo; about 31 miles in length from north to south, and 29 in its greatest breadth from east to west; making 727 English square miles. Its baronies are *Carbury*, *Corran*, *Coolavin*, *Leney*, and *Tyreragh*; and contains 39 parishes, 11,509 houses, and 60,000 inhabitants.

Sligo contains very good land, intermixed with large tracts of coarse and unprofitable ground. In the barony of Carbury are the mountains of Benbulbin and Samore; a chain of rough hills extends from Lough Gilly to the bounds of Roscommon and Leitrim. Tyreragh though level along the coast is intersected by large bogs, and the southern part of it is bounded by the Ox Mountain, Sliebh-Dham, and a great range of desolate hills that extend a good way into the barony of Leney, in which also there is a great scope of bog. The Curlews and other mountains cover the most of Coolavin, and the Kishcorran forms a long ridge on the borders of Tyreragh. Among these hills there are many large lakes and abundance of rivers. The Moy rises in the mountains of Knocknashee, and after receiving the waters of Lough Calt, and Lough Conn, flows in a broad stream to the Bay of Killala. Lough Arrow is about eight miles long, full of Islands, and of a very irregular form. A river of the same name proceeds from it, and running northward to Ballyfadere, rushes at once into the sea in a stupendous cataract. Lough Garra is also an extensive lake. Lough Gilly exhibits that variety of charming prospects which bold hills, wooded lawns, and large islands clothed with verdure and

crowned with trees, united with a great extent of water, cannot fail to produce.

Upon the river by which the waters of this lake are discharged into a large bay, stands the town of *Sligo*, and vessels of two hundred tons can come up to the quays. It has a charter school, for 80 boys, which was opened in 1755. In the year 1245, a castle was built in this town by Maurice, Earl of Kildare; and in 1721, it was destroyed; but, in 1310, the castle was rebuilt by Richard Earl of Ulster.

PROVINCE OF LEINSTER.

LEINSTER the most eastern province of Ireland, is bounded on the north by Ulster, on the east and south by St. George's or the Irish Channel, and on the west by the province of Munster. It is the most level and best cultivated province in the island, and contains 7,360 English square miles. It comprehends the following twelve counties: *Carlow, Dublin, Kildare, Kilkenny, King's County, Longford, Louth, Meath, Queen's County, Westmeath, Wexford, and Wicklow.*

CARLOW.

ANCIENTLY Catherlogh, is bounded on the north by Queen's County, Kildare, and Wicklow, on the south-east by the county of Wexford, and on the south-west and west by the county of Kilkenny; 26 miles long, and 23 in its greatest breadth. It is formed of the baronies of *Ravilly, Catherlogh, Forth, Idrone, and St. Mullin's*; which comprize 346 square miles, forming 50 parishes, with 8,763 houses, and 44,000 inhabitants.

It is watered on the west by the Barrow; but presents very few instances of that picturesque scenery which abounds in some other parts of Ireland. The Slaney also flows on the eastern side of it, and though of small size contributes to the beauty of the surrounding districts. To the west of the Barrow are mountains, and in the south are seen those called the Blackstairs, which divide Carlow from Wexford. The interior is flat; the soil rich and calcareous.

Carlow, or Catherlogh, the chief town, and which gives name to the county, is situated on the east side of the river Barrow, which is navigable to Ross and also to Athy, where it forms a junction with the Grand Canal. It was incorporated by James I.

Leigh-

Leighlinbridge is also situated on the Barrow, over which it has a bridge, built in 1320, by Maurice Jakis, a canon of the cathedral of Kildare; who also built the bridge of Kilcullen. Although this is the thriving establishment, *Old Leighlin*, now a decayed place, has been from the seventh century, the see of a bishop. It is situated two miles and a half from Leighlinbridge, was incorporated in 1216.

Tulrow or *Tullagh* is also a town of some consideration, situated on the river Slaney.

DUBLIN.

THE county of Dublin is bounded on the north by the county of Meath, on the east by the Irish sea, on the south by the county of Wicklow, and on the west by the counties of Meath and Kildare; it is 25 miles in extent from north to south, and from 9 to 16 broad from east to west; forming a surface of 388 English square miles. Its baronies are *Balruddery*, *Nethercrosse*, *Coolock*, *Castleknock*, *Newcastle*, *Uppercross*, and *Rathdown*, half of which is in this county and the other half in Wicklow. These form 107 parishes, of which 20 are in the capital, and the population of the rural part of the county, that is exclusive of the city, is estimated at 170,000. The soil of this county is very shallow; the quantity of scavengers' dung, or sullage of the streets, brought from the city for about four miles round, has, however, greatly improved it. The substratum is almost universally a cold clay, holding water like a dish, and keeping the surface in an unprofitable state, unless remedied by draining and proper attention. There are about 500 acres of turf bog in the northern parts of the county, and the like quantity of the same bog extending into the county of Meath. The common of the Ring, near Balruddery, is also partly composed of bog; in the south there are also turf bogs, in the mountains adjoining Montpelier and Kilmasnogue, which alone cover three or four square miles. Some parts of those mountains have an irregular surface, and great acclivities, and are in many places covered with rocks and stones, so as to render them nearly useless. Turning from this gloomy prospect to the interior of the county, a most beautiful scene opens, of pleasant villages, and ornamented country seats. There are a few salt marshes interspersed along the coast, but none of any consequence as to size. The principal rivers are the *Liffey*, or the *Anna Liffey*, which runs through the middle of the county and through the capital, discharging itself into the Bay of Dublin. The *Dudder* takes its rise in the mountains, and
running

running by Rathfarnham, Milltown, and Donnybrook, discharges itself also into the bay of Ringsend. *Temple Oge* and *Kimmage* river is a branch of the Dodder, and formerly supplied the city basin entirely with water for the convenience of the inhabitants of Dublin, but now only in part, as the Grand Canal is taken in aid for their more ample relief. There is also a small stream, which joins the Dodder at Rathfarnham, and supplies a few mills. *Ballybough* is the next stream worthy of attention; it scarcely deserves the name of a river, but is nevertheless subservient to a few mills in its course, and empties itself at Clontarf. Several other small streams running through different parts of the county, with difficulty keep a few mills at work, at intervals, in the summer. Between the counties of Dublin and Meath, on each side of the Naul, there is a very good stream, that runs a few miles on the borders of the two counties, capable of containing a number of mills for manufacturers of woollen or cotton, grinding corn, and similar purposes.

Beside the capital, which will be described under a separate head, this county contains populous villages, and some small towns. *Swords* and *Newcastle* were formerly borough towns, though now little entitled to notice. *Howth* is a small town, seven miles and three quarters east from the Castle of Dublin; pleasantly situated, and enjoying a fine air. There is a good stream of water running near the village, that would answer well for some manufacture. There is a good light-house upon the promontory, it being the north entrance of the Bay of Dublin. *Ireland's Eye* is half a mile north from the hill of Howth, and fronting Baldoyle, distance about half a mile; this little island is composed of a high rock on the north side, and what is called the Stags on the east, it is perpendicular, of great height, and very dangerous for shipping in tempestuous weather; it was supposed to have been formerly joined to the hill of Howth; some medicinal and fragrant plants grow upon it, and on the south-west side are the ruins of an old chapel; it is about three quarters of a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. *Clontarf* is also a large and pleasant village, two miles and a quarter east from the castle of Dublin, on the sea side. The sheds of Clontarf, as they are called, derive their name from stages having been formerly erected there for the purpose of drying and curing fish; it now contains a large number of handsome and well built houses, much frequented in the bathing season. *Black-rock* is a large, handsome, and pleasant town, four miles south-east from the castle, beautifully situated on Dublin Bay, and commanding a fine view of the harbour and the adjacent country; there is a great resort of company,

company, partly for bathing, and partly for pleasure. *Lucan*, which has a spa, *Glassnevin*, and several other villages, also deserve notice.

KILDARE.

KILDARE, anciently *Chili-dair*, that is, the wood of oaks, is an inland county, bounded on the north by Meath, on the east by Dublin and Wicklow, on the south by Carlow, and on the west by King's County and Queen's County; about 32 miles in length from north to south, and from 12 to 21 from east to west, and containing 619 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Carbury*, *Ikeathy*, *Salt*, *Naas*, *Connel*, *Ophaly*, *Narragh* and *Reban*, *Kilkea* and *Moone*; and is supposed to contain 11,200 houses, and 56,000 inhabitants. This county has no mountains, but comprehends a considerable tract of bog, which is so extensive that one gentleman possesses 18,000 acres. The Duke of Leinster has in this county 73,000 acres of what is called in Ireland "green land," that is, land fit for tillage and pasture; and as the whole of it nearly is let on determinable leases, there are on it of course no seats embellished with that expence which gentlemen might be induced to bestow on their own property. It is watered by the Liffey, the Barrow, the Boyne, and some minor streams.

The town, or city, and church of *Kildare* were of considerable antiquity, but of the original, there are no remains; both the church and other buildings having been frequently plundered and destroyed by the Danes. The present town, which seems to be situate eastward of the ancient one, stands boldly on a rising ground, and consists of the cathedral, part of the castle which is inhabited, the county Infirmary, the parish school adjoining the church, a Roman Catholic chapel, a market-house, and about 180 indifferent houses. The *Curragh* of Kildare contain nearly 5000 English acres, and is under the superintendency of a ranger. It is the Newmarket of Ireland, and generally allowed to exceed the English race ground in elasticity of turf, and in characteristic beauty; the meetings are holden on the last week in April, the second Monday in June, and the second Monday in September, when king's plates are run for by Irish bred horses. These meetings are the principal support of the town. There are also in this county the towns of *Naas* and *Athy*, where the assizes are held alternately, and some others of no note.

KILKENNY.

KILKENNY.

Is bounded on the north by Queen's County, on the east by Carlow and Wexford, on the south by Waterford, and on the west by Tipperary; about 35 miles from north to south, and 19 from east to west, or 773 English square miles. Its baronies are eleven; viz. *Fassachdining, Gallmoy, Cranagh, Kindylib, Shellilogher, Gowran, Kells, Knocktopher, Ida, Ibercon, and Iverk*; these form 127 parishes, containing about 17,570 houses, and more than 95,000 people. The county is mountainous, but cultivation is making considerable progress, though much furze is still to be seen on the hills. It abounds in fine scenery, possesses a great many gentlemen's seats, and the flat districts contain more extensive tillage farms than most parts of Ireland; which greatly improve its appearance. The principal rivers are the *Barrow*, which bounds it on the east, the *Suir*, which forms its southern boundary, and divides it from Waterford and the *Nore*, which crosses it from north to south.

The city of *Kilkenny*, and the borough of *St. Canice*, or Irish-town, according to Dr. Beaufort, form but one large town, which stands in the midst of the county of the city of Kilkenny. It is delightfully situated on the river *Nore*, over which are two handsome bridges. Of the many large and good buildings that adorn this city the bishop's palace, the magnificent castle of the Earl of Ormond, and the celebrated free school or college, founded by the Butler family, and lately rebuilt on a large scale, are chiefly entitled to notice. The houses are decorated with a very beautiful black and white marble, from the large quarries in the neighbourhood of this city, which supply various parts of Ireland, and even London, with this commodity. Kilkenny contains about 16,000 souls. In this city, and its environs, abundance of blankets and much coarse woollen cloth are manufactured.

KING'S COUNTY.

Is bounded on the north by Westmeath, on the east by Kildare, on the south by Queen's County, and on the west by Galway; 34 miles from north to south, and, where broadest, 32 from east to west, forming 661 English square miles. It is formed of the baronies of *Warrenstown, Coolestown, Philipstown, Geshil, Killcoursey, Ballicowen, Balliboy, Garriycastle, Eglish, Ballibritt, and Clonlisk*; which comprize 52 parishes, about 13,536 houses, and 74,500 inhabitants. Excepting the Sliehbloom mountains,

mountains, which divide it from Queen's County, it is generally flat. On the west it is washed by the Shannon, which, however, does not here exhibit any of the finest of its scenery. A great part of the bog of Allan lies within the boundary of this county, one half of it is said to be of this description. This district, therefore, has a remarkable air of dulness. The principal rivers are the *Shannon*, which forms its western boundary, the *Brosna*, the *Boyne*, and the *Barrow*.

Birr, otherwise called *Parsons-town*, is the principal place of the county; it is ornamented with a handsome castle, which formerly stood in the town, with its back toward the country; but the houses adjoining it have been pulled down, so that its situation is now much more open and free. A wall is raised between it and the town, and the back converted into a front, is well castellated.

LONGFORD.

LONGFORD is an inland county, lying in the centre of the kingdom. It is bounded on the north-west by the county of Leitrim, on the north-east by Cavan, on the south and south-east by Westmeath, and on the west by Roscommon, about 21 miles in length, and 14 in its general breadth, making 366 English square miles. It consists of the baronies *Longford*, *Granard*, *Ardagh*, *Moydoe*, *Rathline*, and *Shrowle*, in which are 23 parishes, about 10,000 houses, and rather more than 50,000 inhabitants. It is intersected by the Inny, and on the west it is watered by the Shannon, which at Loughreagh expands to the size of a lake. On the banks of the Inny are 36,000 English acres of bog, and a great deal of the rest of the county, particularly toward the north, is in a rough and uncultivated state.

The town of *Longford* stands on the river Cammin. It has a charter school for 60 boys. The other towns are *Lanesborough*, *Granard*, and *St. Johnstown*.

LOUTH.

Is the smallest county in Ireland, bounded on the north by the county of Armagh, on the east by the Irish sea, on the south by Meath, and on the west by Meath and Monaghan. It is only twenty-two miles in length from north to south, and from nine to fourteen in breadth from east to west, or 329 English square miles in the whole. It is divided into the baronies of
Dundalk,

Dundalk, Louth, Atherdee, and Ferrard, in which are 61 parishes, upwards of 11,500 houses, and about 57,750 inhabitants. Except on the side of Carlingford Bay, which is mountainous, the soil is in general rich and fertile. It is watered on the south by the *Boyne*, and a magnificent obelisk, raised to commemorate the celebrated battle fought by King William at a ford of the above river, stands near some scenery of great beauty. A wooded glen, through which the triumphant army marched, runs down to the place where it watered the river.

At about nine miles distant is *Drogheda*, situated on the borders of the county of Meath, and a county of itself, holding its own assizes. It is a well-built town, on both sides of the river Boyne, and increasing in wealth, commerce, and population. This port supplies the neighbouring country for many miles round with English coals, and other heavy goods; and exports considerable quantities of corn, the produce of the adjacent and of several of the inland counties. Here is also a celebrated school with a good endowment.

Carlingford is situated on an extensive bay, to which it gives name; and is remarkable for fine flavoured oysters.

Dundalk is also a sea port, where are established linen and muslin manufactories. *Ardee* and *Dunleer*, two other borough towns, present nothing remarkable, but the village of *Collon* is highly extolled. It is delightfully situated among hills, and Mr. Foster's extensive plantations are conspicuous in every direction for many miles.

MEATH.

SOMETIMES called East Meath, to distinguish it from West Meath, is bounded on the north by the counties of Cavan and Monaghan, on the north-east by Louth, on the east by the Irish sea, on the south-east by Dublin, on the south by Kildare, and on the west by West Meath; 30 miles from north to south, and from 25 to 35 east to west, making 965 English square miles. The baronies into which it is divided are *Morgallion, Slane, Dulceek, Skryne, Navan, Kells, Lune, Moyfenrath, Deece, Ratoath, and Dunboyne*. It contains 147 parishes, about 22,468 houses, and 112,400 souls.

The soil is various, but generally rich, and a few coarse hills with very little waste land: the bogs are neither numerous nor extensive; consequently fuel is scarce and dear. Much coarse linen is made in this county, but its principal sources of wealth are derived from the flocks and herds that are fat-

tened, and the abundance of corn that is raised on its fruitful plains. It is watered by the *Boyne*, the *Blackwater*, the *Nenny*, and some other streams.

Trim, on the *Boyne*, is the county town, but although formerly the seat of many religious establishments, it now contains little that is remarkable.

QUEEN'S COUNTY.

Is bounded on the north by King's County, on the east by Kildare and Carlow, on the south by Kilkenny, and on the west by King's County and Tipperary. It forms 602 English square miles, and has the baronies of *Portnebhinch*, *Stradbally*, *Balliadams*, *Slewmargy*, *Cullinagh*, *Maryborough*, and *Upper Ossory*, which comprises fifty parishes, 15,048 houses, and 82,000 inhabitants.

There are in this county extensive tracts of bog, and a good deal of cold wet ground, especially near the mountains; yet the greater part of it is well cultivated, and some places rich and beautiful. It is a very level country, except in the south-east and on the borders of King's County.

Maryborough, the county town, is so called in honour of Mary, Queen of England, who reduced this part of the country to *shire ground*, by act of parliament, 6th and 7th Philip and Mary.

WESTMEATH.

THIS is an inland county, bounded on the north by Cavan, on the north-east and east by Meath, on the south by King's County, and on the west by Roscommon, and north-west by Longford; about 33 miles from north-east to south-west, and 24 broad from north-west to south-east. It contains 592 English square miles, divided into the baronies of *Foore*, *Delvin*, *Moygoish*, *Corkery*, *Molingal*, *Fabill*, *Fertullagh*, *Moycashel*, *Rathconrath*, *Kilkenny*, and *Clonlolan*, in which are 62 parishes, about 13,700 houses, and 69,000 inhabitants.

No part of this county is incumbered with mountains, but considerable tracts of land are rendered unproductive by large lakes and bogs; yet the convenience of turf for fuel is in some degree a compensation. The finest scenery in Ireland is to be found in Kerry, Fermanagh, Wicklow, and Waterford. Next to these may be classed the present county, as it abounds with lakes, the banks of which are exceedingly beautiful.

tiful. The substratum being limestone, [the verdure of the fields is remarkably fine, and many of the hills are covered with wood. The principal rivers are the *Shannon*, *Inny*, and *Brosna*.

Mullingar is the name of the county town; *Athlone* is divided by the Shannon, part being in this county and part in Roscommon, but neither place contains any thing remarkable.

WEXFORD.

BOUNDED on the north by Wicklow, on the east and south by the sea, on the west by Waterford and Kilkenny, and on the north-west by Carlow. Its surface is 934 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Gorey*, *Scarewalsh*, *Bantry*, *Ballagheen*, *Shelmaleire*, *Shelburne*, *Bargie*, and *Forth*. The number of houses is computed at about 23,000, and of inhabitants at 149,500.

This county cannot be called hilly or mountainous, except on the borders of Carlow and Wicklow; yet it contains a large proportion of coarse cold land, and stiff clay: some parts, however, are of a lighter soil, and better adapted to cultivation. It is watered on the western side by the Barrow. Being destitute of limestone, it assumes an appearance very different from some of the other counties, but it possesses the great advantage of the Slaney, one of the most beautiful of the Irish rivers, running through its centre. This river, although it abounds with magnificent and romantic views, and deserves as much to be celebrated as the Suir and the Blackwater, is little visited by travellers.

Wexford, the county town, has given its name to the shire. It is a sea-port with a large and beautiful harbour, in St. George's Channel; but the water is not deep enough to admit large vessels: much woollen cloth is manufactured in the town and neighbourhood. The town contains six parishes: it was built by the Danes; and the first forces from England, which attempted the conquest of Ireland, landed there. In the barony of *Forth*, adjoining to Wexford, are said to be the remains of an ancient colony, planted by Henry the Second. These people retain their native language, manners, and many singular customs to this day. They intermarry among themselves, and have intermixed little or none with the natives. They are remarkably industrious, cleanly to an extreme, and possess great simplicity of manners.

WICKLOW.

WICKLOW.

THE county of Wicklow is situated immediately south of Dublin, by which county and part of the county of Kildare it is bounded on the north; on the east it is bounded by St. George's Channel; by the county of Wexford on the south; and on the west by the county of Kildare, and part of the counties of Dublin and Carlow. It extends from north to south thirty-two Irish, or forty and a half English miles; and from east to west twenty-six Irish, or thirty-three English miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Arklow*, *Newcastle*, *Half Rathdown*, *Ballinacor*, *Two half Baronies of Talbotstown*, *Half Barony Shikelagh*; contains fifty-eight parishes, and about 11,550 houses, and 58,000 inhabitants.

A vast tract of mountains, composing almost the whole of the barony of Ballinacor, and a great part of the upper half barony of Talbotstown, completely divides the eastern part of the county, extending along the sea-coast, from the western part adjoining the counties of Carlow, Dublin, and Kildare, so that the intercourse is almost wholly cut off between the inhabitants of these districts. To this may be added the remote situation of Shillelagh from either; forming natural divisions very distinct, strongly marked, and as different from each other in general circumstances as if they were parts of separate and distinct counties. This circumstance of these rugged central mountains, with the fertile borders to the east, west, and south, has made the county of Wicklow be compared to a frize cloak with a lace border, not unaptly denoting the manufacture, with which the mountainous part did abound, and pointing out the line of extending improvement into those now almost desolate wilds. The mountains of this county, which occupy so great a portion of its surface, are relieved by vales of exquisite beauty, affording space for some of the most delightful seats that can be imagined. Among these the Dargle is particularly celebrated, and a description is given by Mr. Wakefield. The name, he says, is a corruption of the Irish word *dar*, which signifies an oak, and *gle*, which denotes a glen, and this name appears exceedingly natural, for the sides of this chasm are covered with oaks, which form a considerable addition to its embellishments. A mountain stream tumbling over its rugged bed, proceeds along the bottom of it, running down from the waterfall with wonderful rapidity. At a particular spot, called the "Lover's Leap," the view is truly picturesque and astonishing, both by its extent and the

delightful scenery of the woods beneath. On looking to the right, is seen the domain of Powerscourt, a park extending from this station to the waterfall, (360 feet in height,) a distance of four miles, consisting of ground thrown into uneven and varied forms, and richly planted with trees and shrubs of every kind, which exhibit the most luxuriant growth. Glens lined with hanging woods, and lawns here and there interspersed, appear in several parts of this lengthened prospect, affording so many charms that the eye lingers over them with delight, and turns from them with reluctance. The mansion, a noble edifice, constructed of granite, is seen embosomed in trees; and the prospect behind it composed of mountains rising above each other in succession, their summits of different shapes and various shades of colour, forming a broken outline, which permits the blueness of the sky to be seen in the intervals between them, gives a grandeur to the whole scene, and presents a most striking contrast with the verdure and other tints of the immediate fore-ground. To conceive a correct idea of the beauties of this truly romantic glen is impossible unless it be seen. On looking toward the left it seems to be overtopped by a mountain, and the prospect is here closed by a distant view of the ocean. It has the advantage also of being surrounded by the pleasure grounds of Lord Monk, those of Mr. Howard, and the ornamented grounds of Mr. Grattan at Tinnehinch. The two principal rivers of this county are the *Liffey*, and the *Owoca*, which in part of its course is called the *Avon*. There are also the *Slaney*, the *Inniskerry*, the *Dargle*, the *Vartrey*, the *Avonmore*, and *Avonbeg*, the *Aghrim*, the two *Derrys*, the *Tinahely*, the *Deerin*, and one or two more.

In the general description of Wicklow, mention must be made of the once celebrated prodigy, the gold mine. Its history is given by Mr. Frazer, in his survey of the county. Speaking of the copper mines near Ballymurtagh and Kilcashell, he proceeds: "It is in this vicinity that the extraordinary circumstance has occurred of native gold being found, and which has excited much curiosity and attention. Mr. Graham of Ballycooge, who lives near the spot, on which the gold was discovered, informed me that about 35 years* ago, a small piece of gold was found in the stream, about the size of the head of a brass nail. This set many persons on the search to try, if any more could be found, and he related to me an entertaining account of a schoolmaster in the neighbourhood, who was so possessed with the idea of gold to be found there in great quantities, that he used to go out in the

* Mr. Frazer published in 1801.

night in search of it, when the school boys played a variety of tricks to the poor man; an account of which formed the foundation of Mr. O'Keefe's little piece, called the Wicklow Gold Mines. Mr. Graham, however, assured me he did not believe that there was any of it to any considerable amount found from that period until the end of August 1796, when a man crossing the brook found a piece of gold about half an ounce weight in the stream. This was about the 24th August, and immediately the country people began to make workings in search of the gold, which was continued until the 15th of October, when possession was taken of the ground by a party of the Kildare militia, by an order from government, on which the great concourse of people, who were busily engaged in endeavouring to obtain a share of the treasure, immediately desisted from their labour, and peaceably retired to their homes. Mr. Graham who was present all the time, and purchased a considerable quantity of gold to the amount of above 700*l.*, from the country people, told me, that according to the best calculation there was upwards of 10,000*l.* Irish paid to the country people for the gold found and sold on the spot; the average price paid for which was 3*l.* 15*s.* an ounce, which makes it that 2,666 ounces were found in that short space of time.

“The workings, which the peasantry undertook, are on the north-east side of the mountains Croughan, Kinskelly, within the barony of Arklow, on the lands of Lord Carysfort, wherein the Earl of Ormond claims a right to the minerals, in consequence, as I have been informed, of a grant in the reign of Henry II. by Prince John, during his command of his father's forces in Ireland; which grant was renewed and confirmed by Queen Elizabeth, and again by Charles II. The summit of the mountain is the boundary between the counties of Wicklow and Wexford, seven English miles west from Arklow, ten to the south-west from Rathdrum, and six south-westerly from the Cronebane mines, by estimation about 600 yards above the level of the sea; it extends W. by N. and E. by S. and stretches away the north-eastward to Ballycooge, where shafts have formerly been sunk, and some copper and some magnetic iron have been found; and thence to the north-east extends a tract of mineral country eight miles in length, running through the lands of Ballymurtagh, Ballygahan, Tigrony, Cronebane, Conery, and Kilmacoe, in all which veins of copper ore are found, and terminating at the slate quarry at Balnabarny. On the highest part of the mountain are bare rocks, being a variety of argillite, whose joints range N. N. E. and S. S. W. hading to the S. S. W. and in one part include a rib of quartz three

inches wide, which follows the direction of the strata. Around the rocks for some distance is found ground covered with heath. Descending to the eastward, there is springy ground abounding with coarse grass; and below a very extensive bog, in which the turf is from four to nine feet thick, and beneath it, in the substratum of clay, are many angular fragments of quartz, containing chlorite and ferruginous earth: below the turbary the ground falls with a quick descent, and three ravines are observed, the central one of which is the most considerable; and has been worn by torrents, which derive their source from the bog; the others are formed lower down the mountain by springs, which uniting with the former, below their junction the gold has been found. The smaller have not water sufficient to wash away the incumbent clay, so as to lay bare their substratum; and their beds contain only gravel, consisting of quartz with chlorite, and other substances, of which the mountain consists. The great ravine presents a more interesting aspect. The water in its descent has in a very short distance from the bog entirely carried off the clay, and considerably worn down the substrata of the rock, which it has laid open to inspection. Descending along the bed of the great ravine, whose general course is to the eastward, a yellow argillaceous shist is first seen. The laminae are much shattered and are very thin, have a slight hade to S. S. W. and range E. S. E. and W. N. W. Included within this shist is a vein of compact barren quartz, about three feet wide, and another about nine inches wide, having the same range as the former, and hading to the northward, consisting of quartz, including ferruginous earth. Lower down is a vein of compact aggregate substance, apparently compounded of quartz, ochraceous earth, chert, minute particles of mica, and some little argillite. Lower down, the blue shist becomes more compact, though still laminated; the ground less steep becomes springy, is enclosed, and the ravine shallower, has deposited a considerable quantity of clay, sand, and gravel. Following the course of the ravine, or, as it now may be more properly called, the brook, we arrive at the road, which leads to Arklow; here is a ford, and the brook has the Irish name *aghat enaought*, (the river that drowned the old man,) hence it descends to the Aghrim river, just above its confluence with that from Rathdrum; which after their junction take the general name of the Ovoca. The lands of Ballinvally are to the southward, and the lands of Colligore to the northward of the ford, where the blue shist, whose joints are nearly vertical, is seen ranging E. N. E. and W. S. W. Before the workings begun, the brook had formed its channel down to the surface of the rock, and between six and seven feet wide; but in time of floods extended itself entirely over

the valley. Researches have been made for the gold, amidst the sand and gravel, along the run of the brook for near half a mile in length; but it is only about 150 yards above, and about 200 yards below the ford, that the trials have been attended with success. Within that space, the valley is tolerably level, and the banks of the brook have not more than five feet of sand and gravel above the rock. Added to this, it takes a small turn to the southward, and consequently the rude surfaces of the schistous rock in some degree cross its course, and form natural impediments to the particles of gold being carried farther down the stream. Besides, the rude manner in which the country people worked, seldom enabled them to penetrate the rock. Their method was, to turn the course of the water, wherever they deemed it necessary, and then, with any implements they could procure, to dig holes down to the rock; they then washed in bowls and sieves, the sand and gravel they threw out, in order to separate the particles of gold which it contained, and from the slovenly and hasty way in which their operations were performed, much gold probably escaped their search.

“ The gold is of a bright yellow colour, perfectly malleable, the specific gravity of an apparently clean piece 19,000; a specimen assayed by Mr. Weavor, at Cronebane, in the moist way, produced from 24 grains $22\frac{58}{101}$ grains of pure gold, and $1\frac{43}{101}$ of silver. Some of the gold is intimately blended with and adherent to quartz; some of it is said to be found united to the fine grained iron stone, but the major part of it was entirely free from the matrix. Every piece was more or less rounded on the edges, of various weights, forms, and sizes, from the most minute particles up to ounces; only two pieces are known to have been found of superior weight, and one is five and the other twenty-two ounces. In the end of 1796, or the beginning of the year following, government determined to continue these workings, and issue a sum of money for that purpose, keeping a separate account in the exchequer of the receipts, that it might be given to whoever might be found to be entitled thereto, and accordingly issued 1000*l.* to Mr. Mills, Mr. Weavor, and Mr. King, as commissioners for that purpose. The operations of the commissioners were put a stop to by the rebellion breaking out in May 1798, at which time the money issued by government was repaid, and a sum in hand, with which the workings have again been renewed in September last. The operations have been confined to rewashing the sand and ground formerly gone over by the peasantry, and in opening the ground in various places over blue schistose, proceeding gradually towards the hill. The operations are

performed by working the sand and soil in buddles, as in the tin stream works in Cornwall, afterwards in sieves, until they make use of fine linen and muslin, so that no particle of the gold escapes. The hope, however, of obtaining any considerable quantity of gold from this source seems utterly to have failed. The skill of the commissioners employed, and the prudence of their proceedings are undoubted; but, as Mr. Wakefield states, every rivulet belonging to the mountain has been carefully searched, and a small quantity has been obtained from each. Trenches were also dug so as to intersect the rock in every direction. The gold collected was mixed with grains of quartz, and as the same mountain furnishes iron ore, of which it exhibits considerable veins, it was concluded that it might contain also one or more veins of gold; a shaft has therefore been sunk to a considerable depth, but as yet without success, and the best judges have given up every expectation of the mountain containing any gold worth the expence of extracting it."

The towns, *Wicklow*, *Blessington*, and *Carysfort*, have no claims to particular notice; *Baltinglass*, situated on the river Slaney, is said to have been the grand *Beal-tinne* of the southern states of Leinster; and there are still remaining in its neighbourhood a number of Druidic altars. A parliament was formerly holden at Baltinglass, as also the assizes; it has also a venerable castle.

PROVINCE OF MUNSTER.

MUNSTER, the most southern province of Ireland, is bounded on the north by Leinster and Connaught, and on the east, west, and south by the Ocean. Its ancient name was Mumhan, derived from the old Celtic *Mamman*, or the county of the Great Mother, and in latter ages it was divided into Desmond, or South Munster; Ormond, or East Munster; and Thomond, or North Munster. It comprehends 9,276 English square miles, and contains six counties, viz. *Clare*, *Cork*, *Kerry*, *Limerick*, *Tipperary*, and *Waterford*.

CLARE.

THIS county, bounded on the north by the county of Galway, on the east by Tipperary, on the south by Limerick and Kerry, and on the west by the sea, is divided into the baronies of *Burrin*, *Tullagh*, *Bunratty Islands*, *Ibrichan*, *Clanderlaw*, *Movarta*, and *Inchiquin*,

Inchiquin, and contains 1,125 English square miles, making 79 parishes, about 17,400 houses, and 96,000 souls.

The sea coast by which it is bordered consists of a chain of basaltic rocks, on which account sailors distinguish it by the epithet of "iron bound." Toward the centre of it an arm of the sea, or rather of the Shannon, runs off to Ennis, and is known by the name of the Fergus river. The county is remarkably bare of wood, and abounds so much with limestone, that whole tracts are entirely beds of it; the surface even has the appearance of a mass of stone. The banks of the Fergus and Shannon are bordered with rich marshes, which afford excellent pasture, and the former present some romantic scenery worthy of attention. Some parts of the county are mountainous, which, however, feed a great number of cattle and sheep; while the more level grounds are very fertile, and yield very good crops of corn and hay.

Ennis, anciently *Innis Clanruada*, the capital of the county, is a considerable town but not regularly built, situate on the navigable river *Fergus*. It has six post days in the week. Here is an excellent school, on the foundation of the late *Erasmus Smith's* charities. The magistrates are a provost, vice-provost, and town-clerk.

CORK.

CORK, the largest county in the island, contains 2,990 English square miles. It is bounded on the north by the county of Limerick, on the east by Tipperary and Waterford, on the south, south-east, and south-west by the sea, and on the west by the county of Kerry. It comprizes the baronies of *Duhallow*, *Orrery* and *Kilmore*, *Armory* and *Earmoy*, *Condons*, or *Clangibbon*, *Kilnattalloon*, *Imokilly*, *Barrymore*, *Barrets*, *Corklib*, *Kinalea*, *Kinalmeaky*, *Muskerry*, *Carbery*, *Bantry* and *Bear*; which form 269 parishes, having 76,739 houses, and 416,000 souls.

As this county comprehends a wide range of sea coast, with an extensive tract of country, it affords great abundance, and variety of scenery. All the south-west part is formed by a ridge of mountains, which rises to a considerable height, and runs out into the sea. Few portions of the county can properly be called flat, and though most of the western side is rough and uneven, it is not so rugged as to prevent the use of the plough, or impede cultivation.

The scenery in many parts of this county is highly extolled for its beauty. *Glangarriff* is particularly commended by

Mr. Wakefield, who, speaking of the house of a gentleman admirably situated for commanding all the charms of the scene, says, "It stands at the edge of the harbour, which is one of the finest indentations of Bantry Bay, so perfect in its form, and so depressed at the bottom of the lofty and extensive mountains by which it is surrounded, that it looks like a basin beneath you, and though it appears small to the eye at some distance, it is not so in reality. The mountains are separated, rough, and craggy; though inferior in height to M'Gillycuddy's Reeks in Kerry, which hang over the upper lake of Killarney, they possess, in a considerable degree, a terrific grandeur of the same kind. This place is beautiful in the true sense of the word, as it is not indebted to art for any of its embellishments. The eastern side of the harbour, on which this house is built, is well planted with arbutus, holly, and birch, growing in the most luxuriant manner: at every turn you perceive a glen, and each step presents new, varied, and enchanting scenery, the beauty of which is set off to great advantage by the sight of the immense mountains above, and those which surround you on the opposite side of the harbour, and which being barren and untenanted, have in their aspect something uncommonly wild. The oak and the birch do not attain here a large size, but the different tints produced by their foliage add greatly to the richness and variety of the scene. Geraniums, myrtles, and many of the most tender plants, remain out of doors the whole year, under the shelter of a rock, which protects them from the cutting sharpness of the north-easterly winds. The mildness of the climate has no small influence on the scenery of this delightful spot, as the deciduous trees remain stripped of their leaves only during a very short period of the year. The most captivating features of the prospect immediately round the harbour, where the woody glens are seen to the greatest advantage, are by this genial temperature much improved, and a sort of almost perpetual bloom and verdure are maintained." He recommends to every traveller whose object may be to see the romantic, beautiful, or sublime scenes of nature, to pay particular attention to this part of Ireland. "Killarney," he adds, "is spoken of as the ultimatum of every thing worth visiting in the United Empire; but highly as I think of it, though gratified and delighted by its enchanting and extraordinary scenery, I cannot help saying, that I consider Glangarriff, and the adjacent country, if not exactly its rival, at any rate a place of uncommon beauty; interesting in no small degree; possessing charms various and striking; embracing scenes suited to almost every taste; and, upon the whole, such as must always arrest the notice and excite the admiration of those

those who seek for nature in her most favoured retreats. The mountains exhibit as much of the terrific in their character and shapes, and want nothing but a greater height to render them as celebrated as of Kerry. But though these mountains have less elevation, the wide expanse of water, and the views connected with so noble a bay as that of Bantry, make up for this defect, and create an interest, which those who feel it cannot well describe."

The waterfall at Hungra Hill, near Ross-Mac-Owen is one of the largest and highest in this kingdom, being plainly visible from the town of Bantry, at least 14 miles distant. The water is collected from various small rivulets and springs, forming a large lake on the top of a vast, high, rocky, and almost perpendicular mountain, which is at least 700 yards above the level of the Bay of Bantry. The water cascades from the top of this mountain in a beautiful sheet at least ten yards broad, which expands as it falls; about half the height of the mountain it dashes perpendicularly on a prominent rock, from whence a mist arises almost a third part of the hill, and, refracting the rays of the sun, produces a very beautiful effect. Hence the water falls from rock to rock, till it has passed the rugged declivity of Hungra Hill; and before it gains the ocean it has another fall, cascading in an arch over a lower hill. This waterfall is indeed one of the most considerable in Europe in winter, but in summer there is no water.

The principal rivers are the *Blackwater*, the *Lee*, the *Bandon*, and the *Kenmare*.

Cork, the capital, is a county within itself, and the second city in Ireland. It is supposed to contain about 9,000 houses, and nearly 80,000 inhabitants, forming seven parishes. It is situated on an island in the *Lee*, with two large stone bridges over the principal branches of that river. The town has been so much improved and enlarged, that it is now above thrice as large as formerly, and its commerce increased in proportion. Several broad streets have been lately added, by filling up the canals that formerly ran through the town. Its wealth arises from the capacious and commodious haven called the *Cove*, one of the best in the world: the entrance safe, and the capacity sufficient for any number of ships, which may ride secure from every wind. Twelve hundred vessels have resorted here in a year in time of peace; and it is defended by a fort in the great island. Ships from all nations victual here. Vessels of 120 tons may come up to the quay, but those of burden unload at Passage, five miles and a half from Cork. The exportation, the largest in Ireland, consists chiefly of beef,

beef, hides, butter, tallow, and other provisions. It has the remains of several monasteries, and contains two good modern hospitals for poor boys, besides alms houses, schools, an infirmary, exchange, and custom-house, which, as well as the other public buildings and walks, are no great ornament to the city. The houses are old, and far from elegant in their appearance; but the banks of the harbour are adorned with villas and plantations, presenting a most agreeable and cheerful landscape. *Cove*, or the *Cove of Cork*, is a very flourishing village, situate under a high, steep hill, opposite to which the largest vessels generally anchor, and about nine miles distant, in a south-east direction, from the city.

Kinsale is situate on the river Bandon, at the northern extremity of a commodious and secure harbour, on St. George's Channel, to which it gives name; it is built on the side of *Compass Hill*, close to the water's edge, and contains upward of 10,000 inhabitants. The river is navigable for large sloops near twelve miles above the town, though a bar prevents large men of war coming into the basin. In this port is a dock furnished with stores for the use of the navy. The entrance of the harbour is defended by a fort, constructed in the reign of Charles II., called *Charles' Fort*, and in which there is always a good garrison.

Mallow is situated on the river Blackwater, one of the most considerable inland towns of the county, and much frequented on account of a soft and tepid spring (discovered in 1724) of the same nature and efficacy as the hot wells of Bristol.

Youghall is a good sea port, situate upon the river *Blackwater*, near the entrance of a bay to which it gives name, on St. George's Channel.

KERRY.

THE county of Kerry is bounded on the north by the river Shannon, on the east by the counties of Limerick and Cork, on the south by Cork and the sea, and on the west by the sea; about fifty-four miles from north to south, and from 18 to 40 from east to west, containing 1,763 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Iraghticonnor*, *Clanmaurice*, *Corcaguinny*, *Trughanacmy*, *Magunihy*, *Glaniroght*, *Dunkerron*, and *Iveragh*, which comprize about 19,400 houses, and 107,000 inhabitants.

This county is full of mountains, almost inaccessible, so that a large part of it is hardly fit for habitation or culture, consequently but little corn is produced: grazing is more at-

tended to; and butter in considerable quantities is exported, as well as beef, hides, and tallow.

Tralee, the shire town, is built on the river Lee, which empties itself into a shallow and unsafe bay called *Tralee Bay*, on the Atlantic Ocean; near it is a chalybeate spring.

In the midst of the mountains of this county are the celebrated and beautiful *Lakes of Killarney*. To describe them adequately has been declared by all writers to be above their hopes. Mr. Young's account of them in his *Tour*, Vol. I. p. 440., is considered as most correct, but as it is spread out in the form of a diary, and blended with other matter, it is not to be transcribed, and could not without injury be compressed. Mr. Wakefield says, "These lakes are three in number; the largest is called the *Lower Lake*, and occupies an area of 3,000 acres. The south-west shore of this lake lies at the bottom of a majestic range of mountains, and the opposite shore consists of a low flat tract of country in a state of cultivation; but the distant prospect from the other side is broken by a few wooded islands. *Mucrofs Lake*, to the south, occupies 640 acres, immediately under the Turk Mountain, and on the northern shore of it is the domain of Mr. Herbert; but the Mucrofs shore of Turk Lake forms too straight a line to be picturesque, and the rocks have an artificial appearance which detracts from their beauty, and renders them less impressive. I allude to the view of them from the water. The peninsula which is formed here is one of the most delightful places imaginable, and the prospect from the top of the bridge which joins it to Breechen Island is exceedingly pleasing. To the south Mangeron and Turk in all their glory, sinking down to the rugged point at the Eagle's Nest, where there is a view of Glenaa, the immediate fore-ground being Breechen and Dyne's Islands, and beyond these the Lower Lake with Ross Castle: Innisfallen Island and the town of Killarney, in the distant prospect, complete the picture. The water, the mountains, and the whole scenery, have something of a remarkably sombre cast; but this gloom is wonderfully relieved by the verdure of Mucrofs at one point, and the blue tint of the mountains stretching towards Dingle at another, both which, combined and contrasted with the other parts, produce a most picturesque effect. For about three miles the lakes continue with a width which gives them the appearance of a river, passing between the back of Turk and a large range of other mountains, which terminate at the Eagle's Nest, till they approach the Upper Lake, an immense reservoir, covering 720 acres, in a hollow between stupendous mountains,

mountains, the rugged, rocky, and almost perpendicular sides of which may be said to overhang the water. The scenery of this lake is of the most awful and extraordinary kind, such as very seldom occurs, and on a scale of magnificence hardly to be equalled, except in a wild country like Switzerland. Here nature assumes her roughest and most terrific attire to astonish the gazing spectator, who, lost amidst wonder and surprize, thinks he treads enchanted ground, and while he scarcely knows to which side he shall direct his attention, can hardly believe that the scenes he sees around him are not the effects of delusion, or the airy phantoms of the brain, called into momentary existence by the creative powers of a fervid imagination. Here rocks piled upon rocks rise to a towering height; there one mountain rears its lofty head in succession above another, and sometimes a gigantic range seems to overhang you, forming a scene that may be more easily conceived than described. Such sublime views cannot be beheld but with a mixed sensation of pleasure and awe, and on a contemplative mind they must make a deep and lasting impression. The highest mountains have been measured by Mr. Kirwan, who makes their height to be as follows:

	Feet.
Currahea Toohill, in Kerry, which forms M'Gillicuddy's Reeks, rises above the level of the ocean	3,405
Mangerton	2,693"

These lakes fix the attention of the traveller almost exclusively; but there are many other sublime and magnificent views and scenes in this county.

LIMERICK.

THIS county is bounded on the north by Clare, from which it is separated by the Shannon and Tipperary, on the east by Tipperary, on the south by Cork, and on the west by Kerry; forty miles from east to west, and from seventeen to twenty-five from north to south; containing 1,045 English square miles. It is divided into the baronies of Connello, Kenry, Limerick, O'wneybeg, Coonagh, Clanwilliam, Smale, or Small County, Coshma, and Coshlea; and has 125 parishes, and about 170,000 inhabitants.

Although diversified by small hills, it is not at all mountainous, except on the south-east, where it is bounded by the Gabtees, a ridge of formidable mountains, extending into Tipperary, and on the borders of Kerry, where it grows uneven,

uneven, and forms a grand amphitheatre of low but steep mountains, which stretch in a curve from Loughil to Drumcolloher. In the first of these rises the river *Maig*, which crosses the county and falls into the Shannon, as do many fine streams by which the county is plentifully watered. In the western hills are the sources of the *Feale* and the *Gale*, which run westward through Kerry; and of the *Blackwater*, which flows in a contrary direction through the county of Cork. None of the views here exhibit fine scenery. The cabins of the cotters make a most wretched appearance, and bear evident marks of poverty. The greater part of the county consists of rich grass lands kept in a slovenly manner, and divided by earthen banks, but without trees.

The city of *Limerick*, which is a county within itself, is situated on the Shannon, and contains six parishes, in which are about 40,000 inhabitants. It is composed of the *Irish* and *English* towns; the latter standing on the King's Island, which is formed by the river Shannon, and which admits ships of 500 tons burden to its quays. While fortified it was considered the strongest place in Ireland, but since its fortifications have been dismantled, its prosperity has rapidly increased, and it now enjoys a very extensive export trade, particularly in provisions.

TIPPERARY.

TIPPERARY is bounded on the north-east by King's County, on the east by Queen's County and Kilkenny, on the south by Waterford, and on the west by Limerick, Clare, and Galway; fifty-two miles in length, and from twelve to thirty-one in breadth; in area 1,591 English miles. It has the baronies of *Lower Ormond*, *Ormond*, *Arra*, *Owen*, *Ikerin*, *Ileagh*, *Eliogurty*, *Killnalongurty*, *Killnamanna*, *Clanwilliam*, *Middlebird*, *Slewardagh*, *Compsey*, *Iffa* and *Offa*; in which are 24 parishes, 30,700 houses, and 169,000 inhabitants.

This county presents extensive tracts of uncultivated mountains, but it has also abundance of fertile plains, with a calcareous substratum, which form as rich land as is to be met with in any part of the empire. It is more adapted for the feeding of cattle than for cultivation by the plough; notwithstanding which, much wheat is raised in the south part, and nearly fifty boulting mills are counted on the different rivers, a much greater number than is found in any other county. The principal river is the *Suir*, besides which there are abundance of smaller rivers and brooks. In Clonmell both the linen and

woollen

woollen manufactures flourish: near the place called Silver Mines, are mines of lead, with a mixture of silver; but the principal productions are cattle, sheep, butter, flour, the last particularly for Dublin.

Clonmell, the county town, is situated on the navigable river *Suir*, over which there is a bridge of twenty arches, divided into two parts by a small island in the river, on which houses are built: the tide flows a little way above the town. Here is a charter school for 60 boys. Clonmell gave birth (on the 24th of November 1713) to the celebrated Laurence Sterne. This town is very ancient, having been erected before the invasion of the Danes: it was formerly defended by a strong wall. Oliver Cromwell met with greater resistance here than in any other part of the kingdom: he demolished the castles and fortifications, of which now only the ruins remain.

WATERFORD

Is bounded on the north by Kilkenny and Tipperary, on the east by Wexford, on the south by the sea, and on the west by Cork; forty-two miles from east to west, and from eight to twenty-two broad, from north to south forming 710 English square miles. It is divided into the following baronies, *Glan-chiry*, *Decies*, *Cossmore*, *Upperthird*, and *Middlethird*, and contains thirty-four parishes, about 18,796 houses, and 110,000 inhabitants.

The country is in general mountainous; in some parts 720 yards above the level of the sea. On the sides of this chain are some frightful rocks and precipices, and on the summits of most of the mountains are large heaps of stones, of great size, supposed to have been the ruins of some buildings, but without the intervention of mortar or cement. Among the mountains are four considerable loughs or lakes, in which are found trout and char. The soil is fertile, and even on the sides of the mountains is found good feed for cattle. On the north it is watered by the *Suir*, and on the west by the *Blackwater*, and two such noble estuaries are seldom seen.

The city of *Waterford* stands on the south side of the river *Suir*, which is embanked by a noble quay, extending the whole length of the town. Vessels of great burthen can come up to this quay, but the largest ships generally lie a few miles lower down. A flourishing commerce with England and other countries is the happy consequence of such a situation. The principal articles of export are beef, pork, butter, grain, and linen. Packet boats are also established between this port and
Milford

Milford Haven. As there is no bridge over the *Suir* below Carrick, the only communication with the county of Kilkenny is by a ferry, an inconvenience to which the great depth and breadth of the river has hitherto compelled the inhabitants to submit. This city is about twelve miles distant from the sea. The harbour runs almost twelve miles up the country, nearly in a straight line, and is all the way deep and clear. This city is of considerable antiquity; it was built in 879, but destroyed in 981. It was considerably enlarged by Earl Strongbow, in 1171; and still further in the reign of Henry VII., who granted divers privileges to the citizens. Richard II. landed and was crowned here in 1399. In 1690, James II. embarked from hence for France, after the battle of the Boyne. William III. resided here twice, and confirmed its privileges. It contains seven parishes, and the inhabitants are computed at about 35,000. It has a charter school for 60 boys, and several other charity schools and humane foundations well supported: many of the public edifices are extremely elegant. The private dwellings are generally modern, and with the other improvements of the city keep pace with the increase of its opulence.

Dungarvan, anciently *Achad Garbain*, is situate on a bay to which it gives name, on St. George's Channel, and is one of the greatest fishing towns in Ireland. The admiralty of the harbour is vested in the sovereign. The castle was vested in the crown, by act of parliament, in the fourth year of the reign of Henry the Eighth. An aqueduct has been constructed here by parliamentary encouragement, for supplying the town with fresh water, which is conducted for some miles from the river *Phinisk*.

LANGUAGE.

IN all these counties the English language is spoken more or less; from some, the original Irish has altogether disappeared. It continues to be spoken in Louth, Meath, and Westmeath; in Dublin, Kildare, Wicklow, and in the King's and Queen's Counties, very few; but in the south-west part of Carlow, a considerable proportion speak Irish; in Kilkenny it prevails greatly; in Wexford, it is very little used in the south-east part of the county, but is pretty general in the north-west. In all the counties of Munster, the Irish language prevails, if we except the large towns, their immediate neighbourhoods, and some of the country along the coast. It is more prevalent in Connaught than in the west of Ireland: in this province the gentlemen find it essential
to

to acquire the language, in order to be able to deal with the peasantry without an interpreter. In Ulster there is a great proportion of Irish speakers. Cavan and Monaghan contain many; Tyrone about half its inhabitants; Donegal more than half; Armagh and Down, a few; Antrim, a few along the eastern coast; Derry, a few in the mountains to the south-west; Fermanagh, scarcely any.

SOIL. The surface of Ireland affords no great diversity of soil. Sand is never seen, except on the shore; chalk is unknown, and such tenacious clays, as in Oxfordshire, Essex, and High Suffolk, are never met with. Such kinds of flint as are common in Kent, Surrey, and Hertfordshire are scarce; but almost every county produces limestone or calcareous gravel. The space occupied by the mountains and bogs, when compared with the whole area, makes a great diminution in the productive acres of the kingdom. In the north, the quantity of rich soil is not very considerable; yet, rich valleys are to be found in every county. A great portion of the soil throws out a luxuriant herbage, springing up from a calcareous subsoil, without any considerable depth. Some places exhibit the richest loam, and where such soil occurs, its fertility is conspicuous. On the banks of the Fergus and Shannon, the land is of a different kind, but equally productive, although the surface presents the appearance of marsh. These districts are called "*the Caucaffes*." The substratum is a blue silt, deposited by the sea, which seems to partake of the qualities of the upper stratum; for this land can be injured by no depth of ploughing. In the counties of Limerick and Tipperary there is another kind of rich land, consisting of a dark, friable, dry, sandy loam, which, if preserved in a clean state, would throw out corn several years in succession. It is equally well adapted to grazing and tillage. In Ireland there is not much land sufficiently light, though abundance of it is luxuriant, to be what is known in England under the name of "turnip lands."

One of the most remarkable divisions of soil is that formed by the Barrow. To the west of that river limestone is met with in abundance, while it is no where to be found throughout the counties of Wexford and Wicklow. Independently of the Caucaffes, the richest soil in Ireland is to be found in the counties of Tipperary, Limerick, Roscommon, Longford, and Meath. Some parts of the county of Cork are uncommonly fertile; and, upon the whole, Ireland may be considered as affording land of an excellent quality, although it may be an exaggeration to say, it is decidedly acre for acre richer than England.

MINERALS.

MINERALS. The *earths* found in Ireland are marl, yellow and red ochre, and one resembling and possessing some of the properties of fuller's earth. Potter's, and other clays, fit for making bricks and coarse crockery, and tobacco pipe clay, with some other specimens, are produced in various counties; as are several useful kinds of *sand*.

Under the head of *stones* are reckoned granite, which is supposed to be the substratum of all the land; sandstone, freestone, the yellow mica, called firestone, and used for making hearths, breccia, of which millstones are made, a silicious schist used for building, flagstones, slate, limestone, marble, white, black, and of various colours, siderocalcite, whetstone, spar, alabaster, calcareous petrifications, lapis Hibernicus, or Irish slate, (formerly used in medicine, and containing vitriol,) jasper, the chrystals called kerrystones, and many others of various colours, amethysts, and some other specimens, including the white cornelian.

It is, however, justly observed by Mr. Wakefield, that among the productions of Ireland which may be classed under this head, none seem to have a greater claim to attention than that of basaltes, not on account of any useful purpose to which it is applied, but because nature presents it under the most awful forms, being sometimes piled up in immense structures, of stupendous height and extent, where columns of it are arranged in various directions, and with as much regularity as if they had been arranged by the hand of the artist. It deserves considerable notice also, on account of the dispute to which it has given rise between two classes of philosophers, the Plutonians and the Neptunians, the former of whom assert, that it is indebted for its origin to subterranean fire, while the latter maintain that it is the result of deposition, and consequently the production of water. The question does not appear to have been determined. The basaltic district occupies a range of coast stretched out from the estuary of Carrickfergus on the one hand, to Lough Foyle on the other, and extends inland to the southern shores of Lough Neagh. Throughout this whole country the basaltes is frequently seen in thick beds, and in this state it often separates into loose blocks, resembling that fossil known in Sweden by the name of *trap*; but, for the most part, it is entirely amorphous, and disposed in large masses, which do not split or separate in any assignable direction. At that singular phenomenon, called the Giant's Causeway, and many other places, it appears in large pillars, standing perpendicular to the horizon; but in some of the capes, and particularly near Ushet, in the Isle of Raghery, they lie in an oblique position, and at the Doon point, in the same island, and along

the Ballintoy shore, they form a variety of regular curves. The little point of Doon is indeed exceedingly curious, as it exhibits pillars perpendicular, horizontal, and bending.

THE GIANT'S CAUSEWAY. The Causeway itself is generally described as a mole or quay projecting from the base of a steep promontory some hundred feet into the sea, and formed of perpendicular pillars of basalt, which, standing in contact with each other, exhibit a sort of polygonal pavement, somewhat similar in appearance to a solid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular prisms of various denominations, from three to eight sides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others together.

On minute inspection, each pillar is found to be separable into several joints, the articulation of which is remarkably neat and compact, the convex termination of one joint always meeting with a concave socket in the next; and besides this, the angles of one frequently project over those of the other; so that they are completely locked together, and can rarely be separated without fracturing the parts.

The sides of each column are unequal among themselves, but the contiguous angles of adjoining pillars always make up four right ones; so that there are no void spaces among the basalt, the surface of the Causeway presenting a regular and compact pavement of polygon stones.

In regard to situation, the pillars at the Causeway stand on the level of the beach, and even under the surface of the ocean, whence they may be traced through every degree of elevation, to the summit of the highest grounds in the neighbourhood; as at the old fort of Dunmull, and on the top of Croaghmore, six or seven hundred feet above the level of the sea.

With respect to size, the perfect pillars are usually about a foot and a half in breadth, and thirty in length. Among the imperfect and irregular crystallizations found throughout the country, small prisms sometimes occur, which do not exceed a few inches in breadth, and which in length are proportionally diminutive. In many of the capes and hills the size of the pillars is much larger than at the Causeway. At Fairhead they are of gigantic magnitude, often exceeding five feet in breadth, and two hundred in length.

Of these vast columns the passage usually called *Fbir Leith*, or the Grey Man's Path, in the promontory of Fairhead, exhibits a magnificent example. It is a deep chasm, dividing the solid promontory in two. The upper termination of this singular passage is narrow, and barred over, as it were, by the fragment of a pillar, which having fallen across the fissure,

remains suspended at an elevated situation. As one descends, the chasm widens and becomes more important; its solid walls of rude and threatening columns increase in height, regularity, and magnificence, until they attain to a perpendicular elevation of two hundred and twenty feet, conducting the passenger at length to the interesting heap of massive ruins which forms the base of the promontory itself, and exhausts the fury of the impetuous northern ocean.

The leading features of this whole coast are the two great promontories of Benjore and Fairhead, which stand at the distance of eight miles from each other. The former lies about seven miles west of Bally-castle, and is generally described by seamen as an extensive headland, running out from the coast a considerable way into the sea; but strictly speaking, it is made up of a number of lesser capes and bays, each having its own proper name, the whole of which forms what seamen denominate the Head of Benjore.

The capes are composed of different ranges of pillars, and a great number of strata; which, from the abruptness of the coast, are extremely conspicuous, and form an unrivalled pile of natural architecture, where all the regularity and elegance of art is united to the wild magnificence of nature.

The most perfect of these capes is called Pleaskin. Its summit is covered with a thin grassy sod, under which lies the natural basaltic rock, having generally a hard surface, somewhat cracked and shivered; at the depth of ten or twelve feet from the summit, this rock begins to assume a columnar tendency, and forms a range of massy pillars of basaltes, which stand perpendicular to the horizon, presenting on the sharp face of the promontory the appearance of a magnificent gallery or colonade upwards of sixty feet in height.

This colonade is supported on a solid base of coarse, black, irregular rock, near sixty feet thick, abounding in blebs and air holes; but though comparatively irregular, it may be evidently observed to affect a peculiar figure, tending in many places to run into regular forms resembling the shooting of salts, and many other substances, during a hasty crystallization.

Under this great bed of stone stands a second range of pillars between forty and fifty feet in height, less gross, and more exactly defined than those of the upper story, many of them on a close view emulating even the neatness of the columns of the Giant's Causeway. This lower range is borne on a layer of red ochre stone, which serves as relief to shew it to great advantage.

These two admirable natural galleries, together with the interjacent mass of irregular rock, form a perpendicular height

of one hundred and seventy feet; from the base of which, the promontory, covered over with rock and grass, slopes down to the sea for the space of two hundred feet more, making in all a mass of nearly four hundred feet in height, which in beauty, and the variety of its colouring, in elegance and singularity of arrangement, and in the extraordinary magnitude of its objects, can scarcely be rivalled.

At the distance of eight miles, as already mentioned, the promontory of Fairhead raises its lofty summit more than five hundred feet above the sea, forming the eastern termination of Bally-castle Bay. It presents to view a vast mass of rude columnar stones extremely large, many of them exceeding two hundred feet in length, and in their texture so coarse, as to resemble an imperfect compact granite, rather than the uniform fine grained basalt which composes the Giant's Causeway. At the base of these gigantic columns lies a wild waste of natural ruins of an enormous size, which in the course of successive ages have been tumbled down from their foundation by storms or some more powerful operations of nature. These massive bodies have sometimes withstood the shock of their fall, and are often seen lying in groups and clumps of pillars, resembling many of the varieties of artificial ruins, and forming a very unique and striking landscape.

The basalt of the Giant's Causeway is a black ponderous stone, of an uniform close grain and hard texture, fusible *per se*, and pretty strongly magnetic. It does not effervesce in any of the mineral acids; it is free from animal or vegetable exuviae, nor does it contain the slightest vestige of any organized substance whatever.

According to the experiments of that able chemist Bergman, 100 parts of basalt contain

	Parts.
Silicious earth	50
Argillaceous earth	15
Calcareous earth	8
Magnesia	2
Iron	25
	100

From the metallic nature of this stone, it may be inferred, that the columns of the Giant's Causeway are all natural magnets, whose lower extremity is their north pole, and the upper extremity their south pole. For having stood during many ages in a perpendicular position, they must have acquired that polarity which is peculiar to all iron substances in a similar situation; and like natural magnets, every fragment when

when broken will have its north and south pole. "And this," says Mr. Hamilton, "I have found true by experience; each pillar in the Giant's Causeway, and each fragment of a pillar which I applied near to the needle, having its attractive and repellent point. Hence likewise it follows, that the great capes of this northern coast must possess a similar property; and accordingly, in the semicircular bays of Benjore I have often found the compass to deviate very much from the meridian."

GOVERNMENT.

THE government of Ireland before the Union was formed strictly on the model of that of England, the Lord Lieutenant representing, in a great measure, the person of the King, and the Houses of Lords and Commons being exactly similar to our own. Since the Union a near approach has been made to the system by which the affairs of Scotland were regulated on the like occasion; but advantages have been conceded to Ireland in the representation, and in the establishment of a court with a resident viceroy.

THE LORD LIEUTENANT. The first establishment of the office of Viceroy of Ireland is to be found in the reign of Henry II., but when the extension of British power in Ireland rendered such an officer permanently necessary, it was provided by a statute passed in the second of Richard III., commonly called the statute of Henry Fitz-Empress, that in case of the death of any chief governor, the chancellor, treasurer, chief justices, and chief baron, keeper of the rolls, and king's serjeant at law, should be empowered, with consent of the nobles of the land, to elect a successor, who was to exercise the full power and authority of this office, until the royal pleasure should be further known. It appears, that provision to the like purpose was made in the reign of Henry VIII., by another act of parliament, which states, "that upon the avoidance of the King's Lieutenant of Ireland by death, surrender, &c. the chancellor of the King's writ shall assemble the privy council, and choose by a majority of voices, an Englishman, being no spiritual person, to be governor; and if none such be found, to choose two out of the council: the chancellor thereupon to make out letters patent for him to enjoy the same till the King appoints one: all other methods, except by the King's patent, to be void." The officers appointed in pursuance of these statutes have in different times been styled in their patents and commissions by different names, as *Custos* or *Keeper*, *Justiciary*, *Warden*, *Procurator*, *Seneschal*, *Constable*, *Justice*, *Justices*,
A a 3 Deputy,

Deputy, and *Lieutenant*; all which names import the same thing in effect, namely, the administrator of the public justice, and affairs of the kingdom, under the authority, and by the commission of the King. The jurisdiction and authority of these officers are ample and royal, yet modified by the terms of their commissions; in some restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the King's pleasure, or the exigencies of the times. When any chief governor enters upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the usual oath before the Lord Chancellor, the sword which is to be carried before him is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the Lord Chancellor, the members of the privy council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at arms, and other officers of state. So that if he be considered in regard to his jurisdiction and authority, or his train, attendance, or splendour, there is no viceroy in christendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majesty of a king. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown, namely, the chancellor, treasurer, (when in the kingdom,) and such other of the archbishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as His Majesty is pleased to appoint. The salary of the Lord Lieutenant, by a late act of parliament, is 30,000*l. per annum*. He corresponds with the Secretary of State for the home department, by whose directions he is supposed to regulate his conduct.

THE CASTLE. The residence of the Lord Lieutenant is the Castle, which is generally supposed to have been built by Henry de Laundres, Archbishop of Dublin, in 1220: he was governor of the English possessions in Ireland, and successor to Meiler Fitz-Henry, who, remaining but three years in the government, after receiving the order from John for building that fortress, either did not begin it, or only made a beginning, and the archbishop had the honour of finishing it. The entrance into the castle from the city was on the north side, by a draw bridge, between two strong round towers, armed with a portcullis, called the gateway towers. From the western gate tower, a strong high curtain extended westward to Cork tower, from whence the wall was continued in one straight curtain southward, and was terminated by a strong high tower, called Birmingham tower, the stateliest, strongest, and highest of all. From Birmingham tower, a high curtain was continued eastward to another, called the Wardrobe tower, being a repository for the royal robes, the cap of maintenance, and other furniture of state. In the curtain between Birmingham and the Wardrobe, were two smaller towers. From the
the

the Wardrobe tower, another curtain extended northward to the Storehouse tower, and from thence was continued to the eastern Gateway tower, at the entrance into the castle. The whole was an oblong quadrangle, and encompassed with a broad deep moat, partly dry, and partly under water by the flowing of the tide, and a branch of the river Dodder, called the Poddle, which ran by the south curtain, and still runs in the same direction, though now a sewer underground. There were two sally-ports, or postern gates, in the walls of this fortress, one near Birmingham tower toward the west; the other by the eastern curtain, to the offices in the back yard.

The ancient officers to whom the guard of the castle ordinarily belonged, were a constable, gentleman porter, and a body of warders, consisting of pikemen and archers, and after the invention of guns, of harquebussiers, and artillerymen, a quantity of great ordnance being planted in the most convenient places for defence. The two gateway towers were for the use of the constable of the castle, for the custody of state prisoners. There were also a chaplain, and officers of the mint, who held their residence in the castle. Many attempts were made in times of commotion to surprise this fortress, but were happily frustrated.

The Castle was not converted to the purpose of the seat of government till the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Before that time there seems to have been no fixed place for the residence of the chief governors; they sometimes held their courts at Thomas-court, sometimes at the palace of the archbishop of Dublin, at St. Sepulchre's, but oftener than at any other place at the castle of Kilmainham. In 1559, the castle of Kilmainham being much out of repair, that of Dublin was, by order of Queen Elizabeth, repaired and enlarged. Sir Henry Sydney, in 1565, was the first viceroy who resided there, and from that time it has been the seat of the viceroy. In the latter days of Elizabeth, and the beginning of her successor's reign, both terms and parliament were holden within the Castle, yet it was not a fixed place for either. It was, however, soon disengaged from these temporary incumbrances, and has undergone such changes, in figure, extent, and beauty, that few traces of its pristine form can be discerned at this day. Great part of Birmingham and the Wardrobe towers remain; and so lately as 1715, one of the gateway towers, with some of the old adjoining building, were standing.

The Castle at present is a considerable, and on the whole a very respectable pile of building, situated on the highest ground in or about the centre of the present city. It is divided into

two courts, termed the upper and the lower ; the upper court is the principal, and contains the state and private apartments of the chief governor and his suite ; and, although the buildings wear an appearance of age, yet from their uniformity, the spaciousness of the court, and fine display of the north side, it has an imposing air of grandeur. The interior is distinguished by many splendid apartments ; but the object that commands the greatest portion of attention is the ball room, or St. Patrick's Hall, as it is called : this is a stately, spacious apartment, eighty-two feet long, forty-one feet broad, and thirty-eight high ; it was newly fitted up, and decorated, after the institution of the Knights of St. Patrick, in 1783 ; the alterations being begun, by command of Earl Temple, afterward Marquis of Buckingham, when chief governor. The paintings on the flat of the ceiling are divided into three compartments, an oblong rectangle at each end, and a circle in the middle. In one of the rectangles is represented Saint Patrick converting the Irish to Christianity ; in the other, Henry II. receiving the submissions of the Irish chieftains, and in the circle is an allegorical representation, alluding to the happy and flourishing state of the country, with a portrait of His Majesty, George III., supported by Liberty and Justice. Around the ceiling, to the cornice of the room, is a deep cove, richly painted, which completes the effect. The private chapel of the Lord Lieutenant is humble, and little adorned.

OFFICERS. The officers of the Lord Lieutenant's household are a private secretary, a steward, a comptroller, a chamberlain, a gentleman usher, a master of the horse, with gentlemen of the chamber, pages, &c.

OFFICERS OF STATE.

THE SECRETARY. Next to the Lord Lieutenant the secretary is considered the principal efficient officer. He resides in London, but his office is divided into two departments, military and civil, over each of which an under secretary is placed ; and, as the chief burthen falls upon them, great assiduity is required. The secretary has an office in London, with which the offices in Dublin correspond.

CLERK OF THE COUNCIL. Ireland has a privy council, of which the chief officers of state are members, but as the Lord Lieutenant presides, there is no Lord President known as a public officer ; in consequence the person principally noticed in the formation of it is the clerk, whose office is filled by a peer. He has three deputies and proper subordinate officers.

LORDS

LORDS OF THE TREASURY. The treasury is distinct from that of England, and is under the direction of a complete board. Among the number is the chancellor of the Exchequer, whose duty it is to propose new articles of taxation, and to raise those loans which enable Ireland to contribute her share toward the general expenditure of the empire. There is a secretary, with clerks and proper assistants.

THE LORD CHANCELLOR. Although the Chancellor is invested as in England with a political character, he is principally considered as a law officer, and his Court differs in no respect from that of the Chancery in England.

PEERS.

PEERAGE. The peerage of Ireland is composed exactly of the same orders of nobility as that of England. Before the Union, they formed a House of Parliament sitting in the same form, and enjoying the same authority and privileges with the peers of Great Britain. The manner of representation adopted at the Union is fully explained in giving an account of the House of Lords, (Vol. I. p. 211).

In 1812 the Irish peerage consisted of the following classes of nobility :

Duke	-	-	-	1
Marquises	-	-	-	9
Earls	-	-	-	84
Viscounts	-	-	-	52
Barons	-	-	-	61
				207

This body must, in the course of time decrease ; because the crown, by the act of Union, cannot create a new peer, but on the extinction of three titles. Mr. Wakefield considers it singular, that in the whole catalogue of the Irish peerage, there are not above ten or twelve families who can be traced as of real Irish extraction ; but there are many of such long establishment in that country, that they consider themselves, and are generally considered as purely Irish.

The following English peers are peers also of Ireland :

Duke of York	-	-	-	Earl of Ulster.
Duke of Clarence	-	-	-	Earl of Munster.
Duke of Kent	-	-	-	Earl of Dublin.

Duke

Duke of Cumberland	-	-	Earl of Armagh.
Duke of Cambridge	-	-	Earl of Tipperary.
Duke of Suffex	-	-	Baron Arklow.
Duke of Gloucester	-	-	Earl of Connaught.
Earl of Denbigh	-	-	Earl Desmond.
Earl Fitzwilliam	-	-	Viscount Miltown.
Marquis Lansdown	-	-	Earl Shelburne.
Earl of Fife	-	-	Earl of Fife.
Marquis of Buckingham	-	-	Earl Nugent.
Earl of Jersey	-	-	Viscount Grandison.
Earl of Scarborough	-	-	Viscount Lumley.
Earl of Cholmondeley	-	-	Viscount Cholmondeley.
Marquis of Abercorn	-	-	Viscount Strabane.
Earl of Digby	-	-	Lord Digby.
Earl of Harborough	-	-	Lord Leitrim.
Marquis of Hertford	-	-	Lord Conway.
Earl of Powis	-	-	Lord Clive.
Earl Sheffield	-	-	Lord Sheffield, Baron Dunamore.
Baron Mulgrave	-	-	Lord Mulgrave.
Baron Arden	-	-	Lord Arden.
Lord Lyttleton	-	-	Lord Westcote.
Baron Auckland	-	-	Baron Auckland.
Baron St. Helens	-	-	Baron St. Helens.
Viscount Hood	-	-	Lord Hood.
Baron Carrington	-	-	Baron Carrington.
Baron Keith	-	-	Baron Keith.
Baron Gardner	-	-	Lord Gardner.

The following Irish peers sit in the House of Lords as English
peers :

Duke of Leinster	-	-	as	Viscount Leinster.
Marquis of Waterford	-	-		Lord Tyrone.
Marquis of Downshire	-	-		Earl of Hillsborough.
Marquis of Donegal	-	-		Lord Fisherwick.
Marquis of Drogheda	-	-		Baron Moore.
Marquis Wellesley	-	-		Baron Wellesley
Marquis of Sligo	-	-		Baron Mount-Eagle.
Marquis of Ely	-	-		Baron Loftus.
Earl of Ormonde and Ossory	-			Baron Butler.
Earl of Cork and Orrery	-	-		Lord Boyle.
Earl of Granard	-	-		Baron Granard.
Earl of Darnley	-	-		Lord Clifton.
Earl of Egmont	-	-		Lord Lovell and Holland.
Earl of Besborough	-	-		Lord Ponsonby.

Earl

Earl of Upper Ossory	-	as	Baron of Upper Ossory.
Earl of Shannon	- - -	-	Baron Carleton.
Earl Moira	- - - - -	-	Marquis of Hastings.
Earl of Courtown	- - - - -	-	Baron Saltersford.
Earl of Clare	- - - - -	-	Baron Fitzgibbon.
Viscount Bulkeley	- - -	-	Baron Bulkeley.
Viscount Down	- - - - -	-	Baron Downey.
Viscount Grimston	- - -	-	Baron Verulam.
Viscount Gage	- - - - -	-	Baron Gage.
Viscount Clifton	- - - - -	-	Baron Mendip.

As some of the Irish peers are English peers also, and, consequently, hereditary members of the Upper House of Parliament, and as ten are Roman Catholics, the number of electing peers is reduced to about one hundred and thirty-five.

REPRESENTATION. It appears that for almost a century and a half after Henry II. had taken possession of Ireland, there was but one parliament for both kingdoms; the laws made in the parliament of England being transmitted to Ireland, under the great seal, to be proclaimed, enrolled, and executed, as laws of Ireland.

The first regular parliament seems to have been about the end of the reign of Edward II.; for the meetings and consultations of the great lords before that period, although in old annals called parliaments, are not, in the proper sense of the word, entitled to that appellation. When Ireland was invaded by the Scots under Bruce, the English government found itself so much embarrassed, that, not being able to afford effectual assistance to the subjects, they were authorized to hold a general council of the kingdom among themselves, in order that they might pursue speedier and more decisive measures for allaying the commotions with which the whole country was then agitated.

In the reign of Henry VII., the parliament of Ireland became, in some measure, dependent on that of England, by an act passed under the direction of Sir Edward Poynings, the lord deputy, by which it was provided, that all the statutes lately made in England, of a public nature, should be held effectual and valid in Ireland. It has been erroneously supposed, that this act extended to the whole code of English statutes; for, in reality, it refers only to a certain number, which, however, inaccurately stated, were under the eye of the Irish legislature.

“From this regulation,” says Professor Millar, “it may be fairly inferred, that the Irish parliament was, at this time, understood to possess an independent legislative authority; for if that

that assembly was capable of adopting the English laws, it must have possessed the power also of rejecting them ; and, as this act of legislature sufficiently testifies the exertion of independence on the part of Ireland, the assent of the governor, on the part of the king, leaves no doubt of His Majesty's approbation and concurrence."

This independent right was, however, considerably reduced by the statute known by the name of Poyning's Law, which declared that no parliament should be held in Ireland, until the lord deputy and his council should make known to the king and council in England the causes for which the meeting was to be called, and the bills which were to be passed ; and that, unless the king's leave were previously obtained, the acts of any parliament should be void. In the reign of Queen Mary this law was still further extended, by an act which declared, that no parliament should be held in Ireland until the chief governor and council had certified to the king and council of England, not only the measures which were in contemplation at the time when the parliament was called, but those also which might become the subject of its future deliberation. In the reign of His present Majesty, however, these restrictions were gradually relaxed, and in 1782 the Irish parliament was declared to be totally independent of that of England.

Before the thirty-third year of Henry VIII. it appears that none were admitted into parliament but Englishmen by birth, or the descendants of Englishmen ; the Irish being entirely excluded. To conceal the jealousy which dictated this exclusion it was plausibly alleged that their lands, lying beyond the limits of counties, could send no knights, and as they contained no cities or towns they could send no burgesses.

Before the thirty-fourth year of the same sovereign, when Meath was divided into two shires, there were only twelve counties in Ireland, besides the liberty of Tipperary ; the number of knights, therefore, must have been few ; there were only four ancient cities, and the boroughs which sent burgesses did not exceed thirty. Hence it appears, that the whole house of commons could not then amount to 100 persons ; and although Queen Mary added two shires, and Queen Elizabeth 17 more, to increase the number of knights, they did not all send members to parliament, for the remote shires of Ulster did not return any.

Ireland, therefore, in the reign of King James, contained 33 counties ; and as some of them had no boroughs, it was found expedient to create 40 new ones. Charles I. exercised this prerogative, but not to so great an extent ; and Queen Anne added one borough, which appears to have been the last.

In

In 1719, a private law-suit in Ireland gave rise to a controversy about the right of appeal from the Irish tribunals to the House of Lords in England: and the consequence was, an act of the British parliament, declaring the right of the King, Lords, and Commons of Great Britain to make statutes to bind the people and kingdom of Ireland, and denying the right of the House of Lords of Ireland to judge of, affirm, or reverse, any judgment, sentence, or decree, given or made in any court within that kingdom.

Yet the legislature of Ireland preserved its independence in taxation. No British parliament appears ever to have assumed or claimed the right of imposing taxes on that country; and several instances are recorded, in which the Irish parliament manifested a patriotic jealousy on this point.

According to the early constitution of parliament, both in England and in Ireland, these assemblies could be dissolved at the pleasure of the crown; but when this prerogative was not exercised, they remained till the death of the king. In England, however, in the reign of William III., the duration of parliaments was limited to three years, which period in the reign of George I. was extended to seven; but as no change of the same kind had been introduced into Ireland, the parliament there continued to exist, according to the old plan, during the life of the king, until 1768, when, in consequence of a bill brought in by Dr. Lucas, the member for Dublin, its duration was restricted to eight years.

At the time of the Union, the House of Commons of Ireland, composed in the same manner with that of England, comprized

- 67 County members,
- 2 For the University,
- 14 For cities,
- 215 For boroughs, towns, &c.

The mode in which this representation has been provided for by the act of Union is already stated (Vol. I. p. 232.)

THE CHURCH.

ESTABLISHMENT. The church of Ireland by law established, is precisely the same with that of England. The ranks and orders are the same, nor is there in any part any essential and scarcely a formal difference. One, with respect to the election of deans, is pointed out in a learned note by the last editors of Coke on Littleton, p. 95., but it would be of little use to general readers to transcribe it in this place.

According

According to the present church constitution in Ireland, there are four archbishopricks, and 27 bishopricks. The four archbishopricks are those of Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

ARMAGH.

THE Archbishop of Armagh is styled Lord Primate of *all* Ireland: the see is said to have been founded by St. Patrick, who built a church at Armagh in 444 or 445.

The chapter is composed of five dignitaries, and four prebendaries, who have voices in every capitular act. The dignitaries are thus ranked; a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, and archdeacon. There are also eight vicars choral, and an organist attendant on the service of the cathedral.

The province of Armagh contains the following bishopricks.

MEATH and **CLONMACNOIS**. There were formerly many episcopal sees in Meath, as Clonard, Duleek, Kells, Trim, Ardbracon, Donshaghlin, Slane, and Foure, besides others of less note; all which, except Duleek and Kells, were consolidated, and their common see was fixed at Clonard before the year 1152, at which time the division of the bishopricks in Ireland was made by John Papars, cardinal-priest, entitled Cardinal of St. Lawrence in Damaso, then legate from Pope Eugene III., in a synod held the 6th March in the abbey of Mellifont, or, as some say, at Kells. The two sees also of Duleek and Kells afterward submitted to the same fate. The constitution of Meath is singular, having neither dean, chapter, nor cathedral. Under the bishop the archdeacon is the head officer, to whom and to the clergy in general the *cong   d'elire* issued, while bishops were elective. The affairs of the diocese are transacted by a synod, in the nature of a chapter, who have a common seal, which is annually lodged in the hands of one of the body, by the appointment and vote of the majority. The diocese is divided into twelve rural deaneries. The bishop while in the country resides at Ardbracon.

The see of *Clonmacnois* was founded by St. Kieran, or Ciaran, the younger, in 548 or 549; and Dermot, the son of Ceronhill, king of Ireland, granted the site on which the church was built. The chapter of this see consisted anciently of dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and twelve prebendaries; but most of their possessions having fallen into lay hands, the deanery is the only part of the chapter which subsists, to which the prebend of Cloghran is annexed; and the dean
has

has a seal of office, which appears to have been the ancient episcopal seal.

CLOGHER. This see was founded by St. Macartin, who was one of the earliest disciples of St. Patrick, his indefatigable assistant in preaching, and called the staff and support of his old age. He fixed the see at Clogher, where he also built a monastery at the command of Saint Patrick, in the street before the royal seat of the kings of Ergal. In 1041 this cathedral was rebuilt, and dedicated to its founder. It appears by the register of Clogher, that the ancient chapter consisted of twelve canons, whereof the dean and archdeacon were always two.

DOWN AND CONNOR. These sees were united in 1454. The chapter of the diocese of Down consists of six members, the dean, archdeacon, chanter, chancellor, and two prebendaries. The bishops hold their visitations, both for this and for that of Connor united to it, in the parish church of Lisburne, being nearest to the centre of both.

The chapter of Connor consists of nine members, viz. dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and four prebendaries.

KILMORE. The bishops of this see borrowed their style or title from a territory called Bresny or Bresue; from thence they were sometimes named Bresnienfes, sometimes Triburnenfes, bishops of Triburna; because they are said to have had their residence near a little village of that name; but in 1484, Andrew Macbrady, Bishop of Triburna, by the assent of Pope Nicholas V. finding the parish church of St. Fedlernid or Felimy, to be a more commodious situation, erected it into a cathedral, and placed in it thirteen canons. Pope Calistus III. confirmed this act the year following; and it is said the deanery of Kilmore was constituted about the same time. At present, a small parish church at Kilmore, contiguous to the episcopal house, serves for a cathedral, and the only remains of the chapter are the dean and archdeacon.

ARDAGH. This place takes its name from its situation, being on a rising ground; and the cathedral is dedicated to St. Patrick. The see was formerly joined to that of Kilmore, but afterward disjoined from it and connected with that of Tuam. All that remains of the chapter of this diocese is the dean and archdeacon; and of the cathedral, a part of a wall formed of large stones, which appears to have been a very small building when entire.

DROMORE. This see was founded by St. Colman, who was descended from a sept of the Arabs. The ancient foundation of the chapter consisted of a dean, archdeacon, and prebendaries;

daries ; but this foundation was altered in the time of Bishop Tod, and a new one erected by letters patent of James I. dated the 21st February, in the eighth year of his reign ; since which time it has consisted of a dean, archdeacon, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, and one prebendary. The cathedral is dedicated to Christ the Redeemer.

RAPHOE. It is not easy to ascertain the exact time when this see was founded. St. Colomb, a man of great virtue and learning, and born of royal blood, founded a monastery in this place. This house was afterwards enlarged and repaired by other holy men ; but it is the received opinion, that St. Eunan erected the church into a cathedral, of which he was the first bishop.

DERRY or LONDON DERRY. This see, when first founded, was placed at Ardfrath, from whence it was translated to Maghere, and dedicated to St. Luroch. The chapter of this diocese is composed of a dean, archdeacon, and three prebendaries. There is but one parish in the diocese that wants a glebe ; nor is there one sinecure in it. Before the reformation, the bishop had one third of the tithes ; a lay person, who was the bishop's farmer, called a *lirenach*, had another, and the other third was allowed for the cure ; but Bishop Montgomery, the first Bishop after the Reformation supported by James the First, abolished all these, and gave the whole tithes to the cure.

DUBLIN.

The archbishop of Dublin is styled primate of Ireland, and not, as his grace of Armagh, of *all* Ireland.

The first mention, which we find of the see of Dublin, is in the seventh century. In 1152, it was erected into an archbishoprick, and in 1214, the Bishoprick, of Glandelagh, which had been founded in the sixth century, was incorporated with it. It is 50 miles in length, from north to south, and thirty-six miles in the greatest breadth ; containing the whole county of Dublin, the most of Wicklow, and part of two other counties. The chapter of Saint Patrick Dublin consists of the dean (who is elective by the archbishop and chapter,) the precentor, chancellor, treasurer, two archdeacons, of Dublin and Glandelagh, and nineteen prebendaries. The members of the collegiate chapter of Christ-church are the dean, precentor, chancellor, treasurer, the archdeacon of Dublin, and three prebendaries. This deanery is annexed to the bishoprick of Kildare. The archbishop's palace is a very antique building.

building. His grace has also a small country residence at Tallagh, of no very modern date.

Glendaloch has been so long united to the archiepiscopal see of Dublin, that the names of its bishops are seldom to be met with in history. St. Keiven seems to be the founder of this see. Here was both a cathedral and abbey; the first was dedicated to the apostles St. Peter and St. Paul, and both situated in a small valley surrounded by lofty mountains. The place is now commonly known by the name of the Seven Churches, from the remains of so many buildings that are contiguous to the cathedral.

OSSORY. The episcopal see of Ossory was first planted at Saiger, (now called Seir Keran,) in the territory of Ely O'Carroll, about the year 402, (thirty years before the arrival of Saint Patrick,) from whence the bishops of it were called *Episcopi Saigerensis*, bishops of Saiger. From Saiger it was translated to Aghavoe in Upper Ossory, at what time is uncertain, but concluded to be in 1052. Many of the bishops of Ossory were at great expence in building and beautifying their church, which was universally allowed to be the finest in Ireland. The chapter of the cathedral of St. Carries in Kilkenny consists of twelve members, viz. dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer and archdeacon, and seven prebendaries. The diocese of Ossory contained the whole county and county of the city of Kilkenny (five parishes excepted). It also contains one parish in King's county, (viz. Lier Keran,) and the entire barony of Upper Ossory, which is a full third part of Queen's county.

FERNS AND LEIGHLIN. *Ferns* took its name from the hero Ferna, son of Caril, King of the Decies, who was slain in battle here by Gallus, the son of Morna. This see was anciently archiepiscopal for a time. The chapter of Ferns is composed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and ten prebendaries.

Leighlin. This see has been united to Ferns ever since the year 1600. The chapter is composed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and four prebendaries. The diocese is divided into five rural deaneries.

CASHEL.

Cashel, anciently *Car Siol*, or the habitation on the rock, is the see of an archbishop, who is styled Lord Primate of Munster. The see was either founded or restored at the beginning of the tenth century; it was made an archbishoprick

in 1152. *Emly*, which was founded in the fifth century, is said to have been at first an archbishoprick also. They were united in 1568. The archbishoprick is almost confined to the county of Tipperary, branching a very little way into the counties of Kilkenny and Limerick, and is twenty-eight miles in length, and twenty-three in breadth. The united sees are very compact, extending thirty-two miles in one direction, and thirty miles in the other. The chapter consists of a dean, precentor, chancellor, treasurer, and archdeacon, with four prebendaries. The cathedral, which serves also for a parish church, is a large and handsome edifice: the ancient and spacious church, which, still venerable in ruins, stands upon the rock of Cashel, having fallen to decay. The palace is a plain large house, in the city, to which a public library is annexed.

LIMERICK. Donald O'Brien, King of Limerick, founded and endowed the cathedral of Limerick, about the time of the arrival of the English in Ireland. Several of the bishops and the citizens of Limerick have been great benefactors to this church. The bishoprick of Inis Cathay, or Inis Scatterry, was united to the see of Limerick about the end of the 12th, or beginning of the 13th century; but according to Usher, the possessions of it are divided amongst the sees of Limerick, Killaloe, and Ardfert. The chapter of Limerick is composed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and eleven prebendaries, one of which latter, viz. Athnet, is the Mensal of the bishop. The cathedral is dedicated to the Virgin Mary. The diocese is divided into five rural deaneries.

This bishoprick was united to those of Ardfert and Aghadoe, which had long been so incorporated, as to form but one diocese. *Ardfert* or *Ardart*, was established in the fifth century, includes the whole county of Kerry, and a portion of Cork. The chapter is composed of a dean, archdeacon, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, and archdeacon of Aghadoe.

CORK. There is very little to be found in ancient writers concerning the foundation of the cathedral of Cork; yet it is generally ascribed to St. Barr in the seventh century. Many of its bishops have been great benefactors to it. Through length of time, the church became quite ruinous: but it was completely rebuilt, and is now an elegant modern structure. To defray the expence, Parliament laid a tax on all coals consumed in the city. The chapter consists of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and twelve prebendaries. The church is dedicated to Saint Barr, or Finbarr. The diocese is divided into five deaneries.

Cloyne

Cloyne became united to Cork in 1430, but was afterward separated. *Ross* too was joined with Cork, about the time of Queen Elizabeth, and still continues so. Its chapter consists of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and five prebendaries. The diocese is divided into three rural deaneries.

WATERFORD. The cathedral of Waterford is dedicated to the Blessed Trinity, and was first built by the Ostmen, and by Malchus, the first bishop of Waterford, after his return from England from his consecration. The chapter of Waterford is composed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and six prebendaries.

Lismore was joined to Waterford in 1363. Its church was founded by Saint Carthagh about the year 636; and Cormac, the son of Muretus, king of Munster, repaired it about the year 1130. The chapter of Lismore consisted anciently of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and eleven prebendaries; but there are now only nine prebendaries. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Carthagh.

CLOYNE. This see was founded in the sixth century by St. Coleman, son of Linin, a man of learning and piety, and a disciple of St. Finbarr, bishop of Cork, and who was himself the first bishop of it. The chapter of Cloyne is composed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, and archdeacon, and fourteen prebendaries. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Coleman. The diocese is divided into four rural deaneries. The collegiate church of St. Mary of Youghal is united to the bishoprick.

KILLALOE. This see is supposed to be founded by St. Moluæ, who was abbot here. The church of Killaloe was esteemed of great sanctity, and was anciently much resorted to in pilgrimage; among other instances, Connor Mac Dermot O'Brien, King of Thomond and Desmond, died at Killaloe in pilgrimage, in the year 1142. About the end of the twelfth century, the ancient see of *Roscrea* was united and annexed to this church; by which union the diocese of Killaloe became very large, containing about 116 parish churches, beside chapels. As to the origin of the church of Roscrea, it is most certain, that St. Cronan, who was bishop, or as some say, abbot, was the first founder of it, and flourished about the year 620. The chapter of Killaloe is at present constituted of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, archdeacon, and seven prebendaries.

The see of *Kilfenora*, which had been established about the

twelfth century, was united in 1752 to the see of Killaloe. It is confined to the baronies of Burrin and Corcomroe, and extends only eighteen miles by nine. The chapter consists of a dean, precentor, chancellor, treasurer, and archdeacon. The cathedral is very ancient, but in good repair: the nave is full of old family ornaments, and in the choir is the effigy of St. Fechnan, its original founder, carved at full length. Here are also seven crosses, each of which is formed of a single stone, and ornamented with very curious old sculpture. It was anciently called *Fenabore*.

TUAM.

The archbishop of Tuam is styled Primate of Connaught.

St. Jarlath, the son of Loga, is looked upon as the first founder of the Cathedral of Tuam, anciently called Tuaim-da-Gualand; which church was afterward dedicated to his memory, and called *Tempull Jarleith*, or Jarlaith's church; and the time of its foundation is placed about the beginning of the sixth century. In 1152, this cathedral was, by the aid and assistance of Tirdelvae O'Connor, king of Ireland, rebuilt by Edan O'Hoisin, first archbishop of Tuam, at least the first who had the use of the pall; for some of his predecessors are sometimes called bishops of Connaught, and sometimes archbishops, by the Irish historians, although they were not invested with the pall. Some of the succeeding bishops built a new choir, and afterward converted this church into the nave or body of the church. The bishoprick of Mayo was united and annexed to Tuam in 1559, and with it the see of Ardagh is holden in *commendam*. The chapter of Tuam consists of dean, archdeacon, provost, and eight prebendaries. There are five stipendaries for the choir. The church is dedicated to the Blessed Virgin Mary.

Mayo. St. Gerald, a native of England, and disciple of St. Coleman, Bishop of Landisfern, followed that saint upon his expulsion out of England, in company with many of the same nation. St. Coleman founded a monastery about the year 665 or 670, at Mayo, and placed in it the Englishmen who followed him; from whence it took the name of Mayo-na-Sasson, or Mayo of the Saxons. St. Gerald enlarged this monastery, and erected it into an episcopal see, of which he was the first bishop.

ELPHIN. St. Patrick founded a cathedral in this place, near a little river issuing from two fountains, about the middle of the fifth century, and placed over it St. Asicus, a monk, and a great lover

lover of penance and austerity, whom he consecrated bishop, and who soon after filled it with monks. After many centuries, and a little before the arrival of the English in Ireland, this see of Elphin was enriched with many large estates, upon the translation of the see of Roscommon to it. The sees of Ard-carn, Drumclive, and some others of less note, were united and annexed to this; and by these unions, the see of Elphin came at last to be looked upon as one of the richest in Ireland. The chapter of Elphin, according to some ancient books of visitations, consists of a dean, archdeacon, provost, and twelve prebendaries. The diocese is divided into four rural deaneries.

CLONFERT. St. Brendan, the son of Finloga, contemporary with St. Brendan of Birr, and his fellow student, founded an abbey at Clonfert, near the Shannon, A. D. 558, over which he was abbot himself, and was buried in it, after a life of ninety-three years. The chapter of Clonfert consists of a dean, archdeacon, sacrist, or treasurer, and nine prebendaries.

The see of *Kilmacduagh* has been united to Clonfert ever since the year 1602. The church of Duach is indebted for its origin to St. Coleman, the son of Duach. He was descended from a noble family in Connaught, and very nearly related to Guair, king of that country. To distinguish him from other Colemans, his contemporaries, he was usually called after his father, Macduach, or the son of Duach. This church was endowed with large possessions by Guair, king of Connaught, and his successors. St. Coleman flourished about the close of the sixth or the beginning of the seventh century. His festival is kept on the third of February. The chapter of Kilmacduagh consists at present of a dean, provost, chancellor, archdeacon, treasurer and two prebendaries.

KILLALLA. Killalla is situated near the river Muad or Moy, in the county of Mayo; and the bishops of this see are sometimes called bishops of Tiramalgaid, from the territory which surrounds it, now corrupted into Tyrawly. They are also sometimes called bishops of O'Fiacra-mui, or Fiacra, on the river Moy, from a territory of that name extended along the river, to distinguish it from another in Connaught, called O'Fiacra Aidue, which lies in the county of Galway. St. Muredach, the son of Eochaid, was the first bishop of this see. He was consecrated by St. Patrick; from whence it is manifest that he flourished in the fifth century. His festival is observed the twelfth of August. The chapter consists of a dean, archdeacon, provost, and two prebendaries.

Achonry. This see has been held *in commendam* with Killalla ever since the year 1612. St. Finian, bishop of Clonard, founded the church of Achad, commonly called Achonry, and

Achad Conair, and anciently Achad Chavin, about the year 530. The chapter of Achonry consists of a dean, provost, archdeacon, and five prebendaries.

VALUE. The estimated value in the king's books is not given with these several bishopricks, as that affords little information as to their real worth; but the following are the observations of Mr. Wakefield on the subject.

"In England there are 26 archbishops and bishops, and in Ireland 22, so that in point of number, both countries are nearly on an equality. It is difficult to form an accurate estimate of the amount of their incomes, I shall, however, subjoin a statement, which is the result of information obtained from various intelligent persons, resident in their respective dioceses. It is as correct, in all probability, as any estimate of property can be, which is so variable in its nature; and, for the sake of comparison, I have annexed to it that of Mr. Arthur Young, published in 1779.

	per Annum.	By Mr. Young	per Annum.
Armagh, or the Primacy -	£12,000		£8,000
Dublin - - - - -	12,000	- - -	5,000
Tuam - - - - -	7,700	- - -	4,000
Cashel - - - - -	7,000	- - -	4,000
Clogher - - - - -	7,000	- - -	4,000
Dromore - - - - -	4,500	- - -	2,000
Down and Connor - -	5,000	- - -	2,800
Derry - - - - -	12,500	- - -	7,000
Kilmore - - - - -	5,000	- - -	2,600
Meath - - - - -	6,000	- - -	3,400
Raphoe - - - - -	8,000	- - -	2,600
Ferns and Leighlin - -	6,000	- - -	2,200
Kildare, held in commenda- dam with the deanery of Christ Church }	6,000	- - -	2,600
Offory - - - - -	4,000	- - -	2,000
Cloyne - - - - -	5,000	- - -	2,500
Cork and Ross - - - -	4,500	- - -	2,700
Killaloe and Kilfenora -	5,000	- - -	2,300
Limerick, Ardfert and Aghadoe - - - }	6,000	- - -	3,500
Waterford and Lismore -	6,000	- - -	2,500
Clonfert and Kilmacduagh	3,500	- - -	2,400
Elphin - - - - -	10,000	- - -	3,700
Killalla and Achonry -	3,500	- - -	2,900
	£125,000		£74,700

The

The incomes of church livings in Ireland are generally much larger than in England, and of late years they have been greatly augmented from the increase of tillage. The deanery of Down, in the year 1790, was worth only 2,000*l.* per annum. In 1812 it was let for 3,700*l.* The rectory of Middleton, in the county of Cork, in 1785, yielded scarcely 800*l.* per annum; at present it produces upwards of 2,800*l.* A living of 500*l.* is but a middling one in Ireland, and any thing beneath it is considered very low.

The incomes of the bishopricks arise partly from tithe, as at Killaloe; but generally from grants of land, over which there is a restraining clause, to prevent the bishop from letting them for longer than 21 years.

CATHOLICS. In this work it is not intended to say one word which may be construed into an opinion, or serve for the foundation of one, on the question so frequently and so warmly discussed under the title of the "Catholic Claims." The majority of the people of Ireland being of the Catholic persuasion, a church government is regularly organized, of which Mr. Wakefield gives the following account.

The Roman Catholic church of Ireland is composed of four archbishops and 22 bishops. The archbishops take their titles, as in the established church, from Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

Of the bishops, eight are suffragans of Armagh; namely, those of Ardagh, Clogher, Derry, Down and Connor, Dromore, Kilmore, Meath, and Raphoe.

Dublin has but three suffragans; Leighlin and Ferns, Kildare, and Ossory.

Six are suffragans to Cashel; viz. Ardfert and Aghadoe, Cloyne and Ross, Cork, Killaloe, Limerick, and Waterford and Lismore.

Four are subject to Tuam; viz. Achonry, Clonfert, Elphin, and Killalla.

There is also a bishop of the united dioceses of Kilmacduagh and Kilfenora; the one in Connaught, and the other in Munster, who is alternately suffragan of Tuam and Cashel.

Every bishop has a vicar-general of his own appointment, who holds his office only *durante bene placito*, and whose jurisdiction ceases on the death of the prelate.

Every diocese has also a dean, appointed by the Cardinal Protector, or the Cardinal in Rome who has the peculiar direction of all ecclesiastical matters appertaining to Ireland; and also an archdeacon named by the bishop. These two are merely nominal dignities, having neither power nor emolument annexed to them.

On the death of a bishop, the clergy of the diocese are empowered by the canon law to elect a *vicar capitular*, who is invested, during the vacancy, with episcopal jurisdiction; but if such election does not take place within a specified number of the days after the demise of the bishop has been notified to them, the archbishop of the province may appoint, of his own authority, the vicar.

The clergy in the mean time assemble and choose one of their own body, or sometimes a stranger; and petition the pope, or, according to the technical phrase, *postulate*, that he may be appointed to the vacant see. The bishops of the province also consult with each other, and unite in presenting to the pope two or three men of merit, one of whom is usually appointed; for the recommendation of the prelates has generally more weight in Rome than the *postulation* of the inferior clergy.

The appointment of the Irish bishops lies in the cardinals, who compose the congregation *de propaganda fide*. This ceremony takes place on Monday, and on the following Sunday their choice is submitted to the pope, who confirms or annuls the nomination, as he thinks proper, but it very rarely happens that he does not confirm it.

Formerly Irish officers, in the service of foreign princes, have been known to influence the congregation *de propaganda*, through the recommendation of their courts, to nominate their friends or relations, but it being found that various inconveniences and abuses were the consequence of this influence, the congregation, about the year 1785, decreed that in future no attention should be paid to any foreign recommendation.

It is customary in all Roman Catholic countries, and it is frequently the case in Ireland, that a bishop may choose any meritorious clergyman to be his coadjutor and successor at his death, when rendered incapable by old age, infirmity, or any accidental visitation. This recommendation is almost invariably attended to in Rome, and the object of his choice is consequently appointed and consecrated, taking a title from some Oriental diocese; but this title he relinquishes on his succeeding to full possession on the death of the bishop whom he has been assisting. While he retains the Oriental title, although in character and by consecration a bishop, he is called a bishop *in partibus*, because the see from which he takes his designation, being under the dominion of some eastern power, is styled in the language of office *in partibus infidelium*.

Beside the four Catholic archbishops and 22 bishops, there is a dignitary who, without episcopal consecration, has episcopal jurisdiction in the town and district of Galway, under the title of *Warden*. This district was detached from the arch-

archdiocese of Tuam in the year 1484, at the request of the inhabitants, by Pope Innocent VIII. The warden is elected by the clergy and the representatives of particular families ; but his election is confirmed by the Pope, from whom he also receives canonical institution, and who grants him the faculties usually given to the bishops. In the same district, there is also a Protestant warden. The archbishop retains the appellate jurisdiction ; he holds a visitation of the district every third year, on which occasion he administers confirmation, and ordains all who have dimissorial letters from the warden : in every other respect he is independent of the metropolitan, and enjoys a separate jurisdiction.

The funds, and other supports of the hierarchy, not being adequate to the decent maintenance of the bishop, he receives proxies from the parish priests and curates at the time of Easter. These proxies vary, according to the customs of different districts, and the liberality of the clergy. In general, the parish priests give two guineas, and the curates one. Dr. Walsh calls them *cathedraticum*, and states them to be very high in the diocese of Cork. The bishops receive also what is called mulct money, or money for dispensations to marry in the prohibited degrees of kindred, and for licensing marriages without the publication of banns : the latter practice, however, does not prevail in the archdiocese of Cork, nor in the suffragan sees of Kildare, Leighlin, and Ossory. As administrator of a parish, the bishop, like the parish priest, receives the usual offerings at Easter, and dues, as they are called, for marriages, baptisms, and other rites. These customary offerings and dues fluctuate, according to the means and disposition of the parishioners. Where collections are made at marriages for the parish priest, as is the case in Munster, and a few other dioceses, they are a precarious source of emolument. In many parts of Ulster the parish priests receive offerings or dues, but the mode of collecting them does not appear. A respectable Roman Catholic prelate, from whom Mr. Wakefield derived his information, says, " As bishop, I never received more than 165*l.*, and as parish priest 350*l.* currency. A dozen of my brethren, I think, receive more, but others much less. As to other parish priests, the majority of them do not receive above a hundred guineas a year, and there are many who do not get 60*l.* ; these are supported chiefly by the hospitality of the parishioners."

EMOLUMENTS. Other resources for support of the Catholic clergy, consist in the gratuitous performance of agricultural labour for him by the peasantry, a practice generally prevalent ; they have also Christmas and Easter dues, marriage and baptismal

tismal fees, the former stated at a guinea, the latter at two shillings and sixpence; there are also fees for masses in private houses; and, upon the whole, it seems, that beside their necessary payments to the established church, the value given in money, labour, food, and by other means, by the Catholic people to their clergy, is much under-rated at 500,000*l.* per annum.

SECTS. IT may be said, that none of the sects which have sprung up or established themselves in England, are utterly unknown in Ireland. Those which are most numerous are, the Presbyterians and Independents, the Quakers, and the Methodists of several denominations.

LEARNING.

THE writers on the antiquities of Ireland speak in high terms of the progress which had been made by her natives in literature, at a time when the inhabitants of Great Britain were in a state of complete ignorance, and produce some remains to show a degree of refinement and erudition which make a considerable figure in the picture of the age. Nor were the care and liberality of former times withheld from the important object of general instruction; liberal endowments have been made, not in the capital alone, but in various parts of the kingdom, quite sufficient in themselves to produce the utmost effect that can be reasonably hoped. It appears indeed, from representations that are made, that corruption, faction, and negligence, prevent the due application of all the means which have been so benevolently provided. If so, it is anxiously to be hoped, that the hand of government will promptly and effectually remedy every abuse; but having mentioned that portion of the subject in this general way, it is not intended to return to it, but merely to select facts, without making observations.

THE UNIVERSITY. The only University in Ireland, is the *College of the Holy and undivided Trinity in Dublin*, which was founded in 1591, to endure for ever, for the instruction of youth in the arts and sciences. Adam Loftus, D.D. Archbishop of Dublin, and Lord Chancellor of Ireland, was the first provost; Henry Usher, A.M., Luke Chaloner, A.M., and Lancelot Moyne, A.B., were appointed the first three fellows, in the name of more; Henry Lee, William Daniel, and Stephen White, the first three scholars, in the name of more; and statutes and laws were made for its regulation. In 1637, it received a new charter, and another set of statutes, which

which made material alterations in the constitution. The government of the college at present is committed to the provost and majority of the senior fellows, who are seven, and fifteen junior fellows. The King, with consent of the provost, fellows, and scholars, forms laws and statutes for its better government. The visitors are the chancellor, or his vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin. There are besides five royal professorships, viz. *Greek, Common Law, Civil Law, Physic, and Divinity*; and three conformable to the will of Sir Patrick Dunn, Knt. M.D., *Theory and Practice of Physic; Chirurgery, and Midwifery; Pharmacy, and the Materia Medica*; as also, Professors of the *Oriental Tongues, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, History, and Oratory*; which last five mentioned professorships, are derived from the bounty of Erasmus Smyth, Esq. The late Henry Flood, Esq., left 4000*l.* per annum to the college, to provide a fund for the maintenance of a professor and students of the Irish language, and for giving premiums for excellence therein. The provision for the fellows is said to be better than any other university teachers in Europe.

The College is an extensive pile of building, situated on the east side of the city; formerly a considerable distance from, but now entirely surrounded by the town. It was built on an open plain, called Hoggin Green, afterward, from the building, College Green: the area at present so called is a spacious open place, gradually narrowing till it joins a wide street, called Dame-Street, which leads directly to the Exchange and Castle. The west front of the College faces the avenue up Dame-Street, having the late parliament-house on the right hand, and the post-office on the left. The plan of the whole exterior, if taken collectively, is a parallelogram, extending in front three hundred feet, and in depth six hundred: it consists of two nearly equal courts, lying east and west. The east court, which was the whole of the original edifice in the time of Queen Elizabeth, at present claims but little respect: the buildings are of brick, rising two stories, with a third in the roof. The only object here that invites the attention is the library.

The west front of the College is a noble range of building, extending three hundred feet, erected, with great part of the west court, in 1759. Through the gateway in the middle of this front, is the only public entrance into the college, leading directly into the principal court, called the Parliament Square, from having been built principally through the munificence of parliament, who granted the University, at different times, upwards of 40,000*l.* for the purpose; it is a fine square, decorated

rated with many architectural embellishments, the whole faced with stone. In about the middle of the north and south sides of this square, are two very elegant buildings, directly opposite, and exactly similar to each other, each having a portico of four Corinthian pillars thirty-three feet high, supporting handsome pediments. On the north side is *the chapel*; on the south is *the theatre* for lectures, examinations, and elections; the insides of each are highly enriched. Between pilasters down the sides of the theatre, within, are whole length portraits of native eminent persons, with a portrait of Queen Elizabeth, the founder of the University. In the middle of the right side, on entrance, is a most excellent monument, erected to the memory of Dr. Baldwin, who bequeathed his whole fortune, amounting to 80,000*l.*, to the University; it represents him at the point of death, attended by an angel, and a female figure indicative of the University: the whole is in statuary marble.

The Refectory makes a very respectable appearance; it is contiguous to the chapel, but recedes considerably, the front is decorated with four three-quarter Ionic pilasters supporting a pediment, and is ascended to by a flight of steps extending the whole length of the front; within is a spacious hall capable of dining three hundred students, over which is a large room, wherein those students who form what is called the Historical Society practise oratory. The kitchen and offices immediately adjoin the refectory; and under the hall are cellars and places where the students receive their daily allowance of *October*.

The college park, which is to the east of the building, contains about nine acres, well planted with rows of full grown elm, where the students are permitted to exercise at certain hours. In the park, at the south end of the east front of the college, is the anatomy house, which contains a great artificial curiosity, being models in wax, formed by a Frenchman named Douane, illustrative of the circumstances attending pregnancy. Opposite the anatomy house, at the other end of the east front, is the *printing-office*, which is a small Doric temple of stone. A *museum* has lately been formed in Trinity college, which has made large acquisitions, particularly in the natural productions of the country, and curious articles from the South Seas.

The Library is a large respectable pile of building, 269 feet long, and 50 broad, erected in 1732. The floor is raised one lofty story from the ground, which renders it light and airy. The great repository is 208 feet long, 41 broad, and 40 high. The book-cases are built, and the whole room is cased, with fine native oak, well framed and richly carved. The cases
for

for the books project from the piers between the windows about nine feet into the room, and, as there are nineteen windows down each side, there are thirty-eight double cases of books, fifteen feet high, containing upwards of 46,000 volumes. Each window-place forms a small recess, convenient for study, accommodated with desks and seats down the middle. Over the book-cases is a gallery all round the room, intended for other receptacles for books, when required.

Many of the books were the gift of Archbishop Usher; they fill six cases, at the upper end of the room, on the right. The two next were the gift of Archdeacon Palliser; and from that to the end, filling twelve cases, are the bequest of Bishop Gilbert, in 1749. On the left, from the entrance, is one case full, given by a Mr. Butler. The door at the other end of the library is the entrance to the manuscript repository, where are many curious original papers; many relative to Irish History, and some of high estimation, in the Greek, Arabic, and Persian languages. The times of reading are from eight to ten, in the morning, and from eleven to one, at noon, every day, holydays excepted. Strangers, by proper application, and taking the library oath, which only respects the not doing or suffering abuse to the books, may be permitted to read; but no person, under any pretence, is suffered to take books away. The manuscript-chamber is fifty-two feet long, twenty-six broad, and twenty-two high.

The provost's house is an elegant commodious building.

By the Act of Settlement, the chief governor or governors of Ireland, with consent of the privy council, are empowered to erect another college, to be of the university of Dublin, to be called King's College; and out of the lands vested in the king by that act, to raise a yearly revenue, not exceeding 2,000*l.*, by an equal charge upon every 1,000 acres, and to be governed by such laws and constitutions as the king, his heirs or successors, should, under the great seal of England or Ireland, appoint. But this power has not yet been carried into execution.

The government, discipline, and degrees in this university are so like those in England as not to require particular description.

FREE SCHOOLS. The Diocesan free schools were established under the authority of the statute 12 Eliz. c. 1., which enacted, that there should be a free school in every diocese in Ireland; that the chief governor for the time being should appoint the schoolmasters in every diocese, excepting those of Armagh, Dublin, Meath, and Kildare, of which the respective archbishops and bishops were to appoint the masters; that the school-house for every diocese, should be erected in the principal shire town
of

of the diocese, at the costs and charges of the whole diocese, without respect of freedoms, by the device and oversight of the ordinaries of each diocese (or the vicars-general, *sede vacante*), and the sheriff of the shire; that the chief governor and privy council should appoint stipends for the schoolmasters, one third to be paid by the ordinaries of every diocese, and the remaining two thirds by the parsons, vicars, prebendaries, and other ecclesiastical persons, by an equal contribution, to be made by the ordinaries.

It appears that free schools were actually established under this act in most, if not all, of the dioceses in Ireland, many of which still exist; but they do not appear to have fully answered the purposes of this institution: before the Restoration no account of them appears; after that period, a commission was issued by the Lord Lieutenant and council, directing the bishops of the several dioceses to carry the act of 12 Eliz. into effect. Measures were accordingly taken in many, and, perhaps, in all the dioceses; but the means being still incomplete for want of proper school-houses, and other accommodations for the masters, in the 12th of George I. an act was passed, empowering archbishops, bishops, &c. to set apart an acre of ground, out of any lands belonging to them, for the site of a free school, to be approved of by the chief governor for the time being; and directing that, until such ground should be set out, the school should be kept in such convenient place as the archbishop or bishop of the diocese should be able to procure, for a yearly rent or otherwise; and further empowering the grand jury of each county to present, from time to time, such sums as they should find reasonable for their respective proportions toward building or repairing the school-houses in their counties, to be levied on the whole, or such parts thereof, as are situated in each respective diocese. Under this act a considerable improvement took place in the state of the diocesan schools; but, as presentments for the different proportions of each county in the several dioceses were found extremely inconvenient, if not impracticable, the grand jury of each county, in which a diocesan school is situated, were, by an act of 29th George II., empowered to present sums to be levied on the whole county for building or repairing the school-house; still, however, there are several dioceses unprovided with proper school-houses, and some without any, and the general benefit derived from the whole institution is far from corresponding with the intention of the legislature, or even with the number of schools actually kept, or supposed to be so.

James I. endowed, with lands of considerable value, a free school in each of the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, Donegal,

Londonderry, Cavan, and Fermanagh. The first Duke of Ormond erected and endowed a school at Kilkenny with a small portion of land, a rent charge of 130*l.* per annum, and a good school-house, and habitation for the master and scholars. Erasmus Smith, Esq. endowed the school of Tipperary with one hundred marks, per annum, besides a school-house, garden, and a small parcel of land. The lands annexed to each of these establishments are as follow; Armagh has 1530 English acres; Dungannon, 1600; Enniskillen, 3360; Raphoe, 5964; Cavan, 570; and Banagher and Carysfort, 336.

CHARTER-SCHOOLS. The charter-schools were founded in 1733, by George II., for the purpose of instructing "the children of the Popish and other poor natives in the English tongue." In addition to his Majesty's grants, subscriptions were raised by individuals, all Protestants, though Roman Catholics were equally interested in the design. These individuals formed themselves into a body, styled "The Incorporated Society," who received, and continue to receive, large parliamentary grants, and, besides these, many bequests from private persons have been added to their funds; but these charitable efforts appear to have failed of their end. The children of Catholics alone are admitted; but, it is said, that the elementary books, formerly offered for their instruction, contained such decided censures of the tenets of the church at Rome, that Catholic parents would not permit their children to receive instructions which must be blended with doctrines, which, in their conscience, they are bound to condemn. These publications are discontinued, and, it is to be hoped, that the prejudice they excited will subside. From 1802 to 1808, the total number of children maintained, clothed, and educated, was 14,656.

There are several other establishments for education, which partake more of the nature of particular charities than those which have been mentioned. Among them are the following.

THE BLUE COAT SCHOOL. The Blue Coat Hospital, originally in Queen Street, Oxmantown, was founded in 1670, by Charles II. with a charter and grant of the ground whereon it stood. It was at first intended as an asylum for the aged and infirm poor of the city, as well as for their children; but the fund proving unequal to such extensive charity, after the year 1680, boys only were received, and the number increased from about 40 to 170, who are supported by voluntary contributions. The children admitted into this hospital must be sons of reduced freemen. Ten are received on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, Esq.; and two agreeably to the will of Mr. James Southwell, who bequeathed 4,364*l.* to the hospital. The

The corporation of merchants support a mathematical school here, for the instruction of ten boys in navigation for the sea service. The children are dieted and clothed, carefully instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and, when properly qualified, apprenticed with a fee of 5*l.* each, to Protestant masters.

The Blue Coat Hospital justly merits the appellation of an elegant structure: the judicious proportion of height to extent, and the propriety of decoration displayed in this building, produce a very happy effect. It is situated on the north side of the Liffey; occupying part of a long neglected piece of ground called Ostman town, or Oxmantown-Green, and is opposite a broad opening named Blackall Street. This edifice consists of a centre building, and two wings connected with the centre, by two subservient divisions, screened in front by two circular walls forming sweeps between the wings and the centre. The body in the middle contains all the apartments for conducting the business of the hospital, with others for the residence of the officers of the establishment. The chapel is fitted up with taste and elegance; and the interior of the whole structure is conspicuous both for beauty and convenience. This noble building, forming an extent in front of 300 feet, is faced with Portland stone. The centre pile is 85 feet long, by 58 broad, and 44 high. The tower is 130 feet high to the ball under the vane. The chapel is 65 feet long, 32 broad, and 32 high; and its corresponding wing is of the same dimensions. The foundation stone was laid on the 16th of June 1773, by his Excellency the Earl of Harcourt, then Viceroy of Ireland.

THE HIBERNIAN SOCIETY'S SCHOOL. This society was formed in 1765, for the eminently laudable purpose of maintaining, educating, apprenticing or placing in the army the orphans and children of soldiers in Ireland. The plan is persevered in with great spirit and success; the school is in the Phoenix Park, Dublin, and the number of pupils in it is generally between 4 and 500.

HIBERNIAN MARINE SOCIETY. During the war in 1760, a number of gentlemen formed a plan for promoting the service of the navy, by clothing men and boys, and otherwise encouraging them to enter, by which many hands were obtained. Peace rendering such exertions no longer necessary, the idea was conceived of founding a permanent establishment, which should aid the commercial interest in times of peace, and the national marine in war, by protecting, supporting, and instructing the male children of seafaring men. In 1766, the society first opened a house at Ring's-end, for the reception of 20 boys, which

which number by the increase of benefactions, they enlarged to 60, and upwards. Experience confirmed so fully the utility of the undertaking, that, in 1768, a plot of ground was taken at the lower end of Sir John Rogerfon's Quay; and in 1773, the new house was opened: a charter was obtained in 1775 appointing the society governors, and the Lord Lieutenant, for the time being, president. There are seven vice-presidents, and a committee of 15. A subscription of 20 guineas entitles the donor to be a governor for life. There are now on the foundation, and most constantly is, about 120 boys, who are carefully instructed in the principles of navigation by an able mathematician who resides in the house, and has a liberal salary.

COLLEGE OF MAYNOOTH. The establishment of the Roman Catholic University at Maynooth, in the county of Kildare, was an act of the Irish parliament. Till 1793, a Roman Catholic was not permitted to become a student in the university in Dublin; consequently, all young men intended for the church were obliged to take their degrees in foreign universities. Before the repeal of the greater part of the penal code the war with France had commenced and extended to Spain. The Irish Catholics therefore did not find it easy to send a sufficient number of persons abroad for education. This inconvenience being strongly felt, and the time appearing favourable, the Catholics obtained permission to establish an university for students of their own persuasion under a charter of incorporation, that the funds raised to support it might be legally secured. Parliament at the same time voted money to assist them. The establishment is under the inspection of the chancellor and chief judges; parliament voted annually 8,000*l.*, and afterward, this sum was increased to 13,000*l.*

The College at Maynooth accommodates 200 students with lodgings; affords them commons and instruction; supplies them in the public halls with coals and candles during studying hours. Each student pays 9*l.* 2*s.* entrance money; provides himself with clothes, books, bedding and chamber furniture, pays for washing, mending, and candle light for his room. This expence may be moderately estimated at 20*l.* per annum. Each student before admission must deliver to the president authentic certificates of his age, parentage, baptism, and of having taken the oath of allegiance, together with the recommendation of his prelates. He is then examined in the classics, and admitted, if approved by the major part of the examiners.

THE LAW.

The law of Ireland is in all its great outlines similar to that of England; the slight variances between them arise only from the different views which two legislatures independent on each other would adopt in applying particular regulations to the same objects, although both aimed at the same end, and both had the same general means of attaining it.

COURTS. The law is administered in Ireland as in England in Courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. These in their constitution and offices are exactly on the plan of those in England, the only difference being in the salaries and emoluments of their judges and officers.

HALL OF JUSTICE. The four courts of law were formerly holden under one roof in Christ-church-lane, and until 1695 they were separate and ambulatory, being removed as convenience and safety made it expedient. Sometimes they were holden at Carlow, sometimes at Drogheda, but mostly in the castle of Dublin. The building erected for the Courts of Law, commonly called the Four Courts, with the addition of the law offices adjoining, is an extensive and truly elegant pile, situated on the Inns' Quay, on the north side of the river, about a quarter of a mile westward of Essex Bridge, and easy of access from all quarters of the city.

The whole edifice forms an oblong rectangle of 440 feet in front, to the river, and 170 feet deep, to the rear. The centre pile 140 feet square, divides off the law offices, and forms two court yards, one to the east, the other to the west; which courts are shut out from the street by handsome screen walls, perforated in arches. The middle structure contains the courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas, with all requisite conveniences for the discharge of business. The outside is adorned with statues. From the street is an ascent of five steps to the portico, with the great door of entrance in the centre of a semi-circular recess, conducting through an oblong vestibule into the great hall under the dome, into which is a descent of five steps. To have a clear conception of the disposition of the various apartments of the inside, as they are arranged around the circular hall, it is necessary first to conceive the plan well; which may be distinctly delineated in the imagination, by figuring a circle of 64 feet diameter, inscribed in the centre of a square of 140 feet, with the four courts radiating from the circle to the angles of the square, like the four sails of a windmill. In the spaces between the courts are disposed convenient and handsome rooms

rooms for the judges, jurors, and officers. In the circular hall are eight similar openings. One from the portico at entrance, the opposite to which leads to a spacious apartment called the Chancery Chamber, under which is an extensive coffee room, with other conveniences; the openings at right angles with the two just mentioned communicate to the rooms for the judges and jurors; and the four others open to the respective courts, as already observed. In each of the above openings stand four columns, two in depth on each side. In the piers, between the openings, are niches and sunk pannels. The columns around the hall are of the Corinthian order, 25 feet high, fluted in the upper two thirds of the shafts, and stand upon a sub-plinth that contains the steps of ascent into the courts and avenues. The entablature is continued around unbroken, above which is an attic pedestal, having in the dado eight sunk pannels corresponding and over the eight openings below, between the columns. In the pannels, over the entrances into the courts, are historical pieces in bas relief, representing four great events in the British history. From the attic springs a dome nearly hemispherical, having a large circular opening in the centre around which is a gallery. Through the opening is seen the void between the interior and exterior domes; the same in effect as is seen in the Cathedral of St. Paul's, London. The hall is lighted by eight windows in the dome, over the eight pannels of the attic; the large apertures in the cylinder without communicate to the windows within, whence flows a power of light, which completely as well as beautifully illumines the whole. Between the windows in the dome are eight colossal statues in alto relievo, standing on consoles, emblematical of liberty, justice, wisdom, law, prudence, mercy, eloquence, and punishment. A rich frieze of foliage takes its rise over the heads of the above statues, and extends around the dome. In the frieze, over each window, are medallions of eight ancient lawgivers. The interior of the hall is simple, elegant, and magnificent. As the four corners are similar, and of equal dimensions, a particular description of one will answer for all. On rising five steps, and removing a curtain immediately at the back of the columns, the court is entered; a wainscot skreen crosses it, having a door at each extremity for the admission of counsel, attornies, and witnesses. On each side is a gallery, one for the jury, the other for the sheriff and other officers. The judges sit in a cove formed by a niche in the end of the court, with semi-elliptical sounding boards over their heads. Each court is lighted by six windows, three on each side, above the cornice, which is on a level with the cornice over the columns of the hall. Level with the

galleries are apartments for the jurors to retire. This extensive building was begun in 1776, the foundation stone of the part containing the courts was laid, with the usual ceremony, on the 13th of March 1786, by His Grace Charles Duke of Rutland, then Lord-Lieutenant, attended by the Lord Chancellor and great law officers.

Formerly barristers were not called in Ireland, unless they had kept a certain number of terms in an inn of court in England; at present keeping terms in England will be counted as part of the student's progress toward the bar in Ireland, but the terms may be kept altogether in Dublin.

CIRCUITS. In Ireland as in England the judges of the three common law courts go on circuits in the spring and summer of every year. The kingdom is divided into six circuits, comprising the following counties:

Home. — Kildare, Carlow, Queen's County, King's County, Westmeath, and Meath.

Leinster. — Wicklow, Wexford, Waterford, city of Waterford, Tipperary, Kilkenny, and city of Kilkenny.

North-east. — County Town of Drogheda, Louth, Monaghan, Armagh, Antrim, and Down.

North-west. — Longford, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Donegal, and City and County of Londonderry.

Munster. — Clare, Limerick, City of Limerick, Kerry, City of Cork, and County of Cork.

Connaught. — Roscommon, Leitrim, Sligo, Mayo, Galway, Town of Galway.

SESSIONS. At the Quarter Sessions each county is generally divided into four districts; but this for the most part depends upon their size, and the Sessions are held in turn at some towns in each. Inferior judges, called assistant barristers, are appointed to help with legal information the country magistrates, with whom they sit upon the bench; the salary is 500*l.* per annum. As there is no poor rate nor parochial settlement in Ireland, the business would be very little, but indictments are numerous, and in these courts of Quarter Sessions debts not exceeding 10*l.* are recovered.

REVENUE.

HISTORY. The account given by Sir John Sinclair of the revenue of Ireland is to the following effect.

During a long course of years after the acquisition of at least part of Ireland, historians record but few important particulars connected with the present subject. In the twelfth

year of the reign of John, indeed, we are told, that a court of exchequer was erected for the management of the revenue. It also appears, that during the government of Henry III. his Irish as well as his English subjects, had just reason to complain of his exactions, and of the oppressions of his ministers. His son Edward I. not satisfied with drawing a revenue from Ireland, endeavoured to borrow money for carrying on hostilities against the Welch; and while Edward II. sat upon the throne, such, it should seem, were the confusion and disorders in Ireland, particularly after the invasion of Edward Bruce, that the only mode by which the English army could be maintained was by imposing *coigne* and *livery*; that is by extorting money and provisions, by force, from the wretched inhabitants.

The amount of the income which Edward III. enjoyed from Ireland has been not a little controverted. On the one hand, Walsingham and Hollingshead positively assert, that it amounted to 30,000*l.* a-year, whereas Sir John Davis, who seems carefully to have examined the Irish records, affirms, that it never came to 10,000*l.* The most important financial transaction that took place under the government of Richard II. was a tax upon *absentees*. Richard himself thought it necessary to pass into Ireland, with a view of completing the conquest. But he neither extended his possessions, nor made any addition to his revenue. Henry IV. was too much occupied in securing his crown, and Henry V. in his enterprize against France, to pay much attention to the affairs of Ireland. To such a height had the disorders of that country arisen, that in 1433 the revenue was reduced to 2339*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*, while the expences of government exceeded the annual income by 18*l.* 17*s.* 5½*d.* In the reign of Henry VI. Richard Duke of York undertook the charge of that kingdom, demanding, however, not only the whole revenue of Ireland, (which he was to receive without being in any respect accountable,) but also stipulated, that he should be supplied from England, for the first year, with 4000 marks, and afterwards with 2000*l.* per annum.

Nor were the finances of Ireland in a better state during the short period that the House of York sat upon the throne. It was thought necessary to have a standing force of 140 horsemen to assist the militia of the country in defending the English pale; yet the expence of that small troop, although only 500*l.* per annum, was supposed to exceed the resources of the Irish government; and it was thought necessary to assure the deputy, that money should be sent from England, if the Irish revenue should prove unequal to the proposed establishment. In the instructions, also, which were given to the officers of state at that time, they were specially enjoined, that no more than one

subsidy not to exceed 1200 marks, or 800*l.*, as *hath been accustomed*, should be demanded in any one year.

It may be proper here to mention, that by an act of the English parliament, absentees from Ireland were made again subject to certain specified taxes for the purpose of raising a supply to defend the English settlements from the attacks of the Irish; and although parliaments were then held in Ireland, yet the English legislature claimed and enjoyed a controuling and superintending authority over those assemblies. Receivers and triers of petitions, as they were called, were appointed for Ireland, as often as an English parliament was assembled; and it appears that in the eighth year of Edward II. several lords of Ireland were summoned to a parliament at Westminster, to consult upon the general business of the two kingdoms. Henry VII. procured an act, imposing a duty of 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* on every six-score acres of arable land, to continue for five years. In his reign, also, a duty of one shilling in the pound on all goods imported or exported (wine and oil only excepted) was first laid, throughout the whole kingdom; and at the same time, a subsidy of thirteen shillings and four-pence on every plow-land, was granted for ten years. During the reign of Henry VIII. some addition was made to the revenue of Ireland, by the suppression of religious houses, and by vesting the ecclesiastical property in the crown. The former laws against absentees were also revived and enforced; two-thirds of their annual income were appropriated to the public service; and the subsidy of thirteen and four-pence for each plow-land was regularly voted as necessary for the maintenance of the English government against the efforts of the natives.

From the death of Henry VIII. nothing remarkable occurs, with regard to the present subject, until the accession of Elizabeth. This spirited and able sovereign was more unsuccessful in her government of Ireland than in any other political undertaking. The strict attention to economy, by which her reign was distinguished, was ill suited to the circumstances of that country, and the exertions necessary to preserve it in a state of tranquillity and subjection, particularly after Philip King of Spain had begun to tamper with the Irish, and to incite them to rebellion. The ordinary income of the kingdom amounted only to 6000*l.* per annum. Twenty thousand pounds additional were remitted from England in aid of that inconsiderable revenue, but this sum was paid with much repining, and not very punctually; and when Perrot, the Lord-Deputy, engaged, if the remittances were augmented to 50,000*l.* for only three years, to encompass and strengthen the whole realm, with royal garrisons connected by an easy and
secure

secure communication, the proposal was rejected both by the Queen and the English parliament, as by far too expensive. The evil being thus neglected, and the government left in a state of weakness, the native Irish were encouraged to revolt, and a flame burst out which could not be extinguished, until England was put to heavier charges than any war, whether foreign or domestic, had ever before required, the large sum of 3,400,000*l.* being expended in quelling the insurrection.

The revenue of Ireland, during the reign of James I., still continued inadequate to the public expences, to the amount, it is supposed, of 16,000*l.* per annum. The income of the different branches however was increasing. The customs, which formerly had hardly yielded 50*l.* yearly, were gradually raised to 3000*l.*, and ultimately to 9700*l.* per annum. The prerogative of wardship, and other feudal rights belonging to the crown, of old of little value, were brought to produce 10,000*l.* annually. The crown rents also were more strictly collected; and the foundation of a great increase was laid by a new plantation in the province of Ulster. But all was insufficient. Beside the expences of the civil government, the troops maintained in Ireland, although reduced from about twenty thousand to the inconsiderable number of 1350 foot and about 200 horse, cost no less than 52,500*l.* per annum. It was to defray the expence of the army in Ireland, that English baronets were first created, by which 98,500*l.* were raised; in addition to which, the sum of 247,433*l.* was remitted from England, to discharge the debts due in Ireland, in the time of Queen Elizabeth, and to pay several extraordinary charges above the usual establishment.

One subsidy was granted to James, by the Irish parliament; it was a tax of 2*s.* 8*d.* in the pound on every personal estate of the value of 3*l.* per annum and upwards, and twice that sum on aliens; and on real estates, of the value of twenty shillings and upwards, four-pence in the pound was imposed. The King was so delighted with this liberal grant, that he enjoined the Lord-Deputy to assure the Irish, that he held his subjects there in equal favour with those of his other kingdoms, and that he should be as careful to provide for their prosperous and flourishing state as for the safety of his own person.

The government of Charles I., in so far as relates to the revenue of Ireland, may be divided into three periods. The first, from his accession to the appointment of the Earl of Strafford as Lord-Lieutenant: the second terminates with the government of that unfortunate minister; and the third period comprehends the remaining part of Charles's reign.

Before Strafford was sent to Ireland, this monarch did not seem to have known in what manner that country ought to be treated. Finding some difficulties in procuring money to pay his forces there, he scrupled not to give directions, that the army should be quartered in the different counties and towns of Ireland; and they were ordered to furnish them, by turns, for three months at a time, with money, clothes, and victuals. The hopes of extorting some favourable concessions from the King's necessities, made his Irish subjects submit, with less reluctance, to so heavy and unusual a burthen.

A contest was afterwards carried on for some time between Charles and the Irish, which of them should best deceive, or outwit the other. The Irish sent agents to the court, who made a liberal offer of granting a voluntary contribution to the amount of 120,000*l.* to be paid in three years, at the rate of 40,000*l.* per annum, in consideration of which, certain graces, or regulations in their favour, were required; but the King had no inclination to part with his power, and his subjects in Ireland were resolved, unless their wishes were complied with, not to part with their property. The consequence was a struggle which of them should succeed best, by intrigue and artifice, in the course of which both were mutually dissatisfied. The Irish, however, obtained some stipulations in their favour; and they agreed to pay the voluntary subsidy, at the rate of five, instead of 10,000*l.* per quarter. It was afterwards continued at the rate of 20,000*l.* per annum, for two years, during Strafford's administration. The principal object which that minister had in view was to improve the revenue, and consequently to relieve the necessities of his royal master. In that attempt he was far from being unsuccessful, insomuch, that in a letter to the King, dated 15th July, 1638, he asserted, that he had advanced the revenue there from 4300*l.*, to 8800*l.* a-year. The rents payable to the crown were greatly increased. Considerable sums were raised by fines when letters patent were renewed, and plantations were granted. Six subsidies were unanimously given by the laity, and eight by the clergy; and so full had the exchequer become, that the Lord-Lieutenant was able to send over 30,000*l.* to the King, when the Scots first began to oppose his authority. Such grants, however, were too heavy to be frequently renewed. It is said, that one year's assessment on the Earl of Cork amounted to 3600*l.*; and it was thought necessary for the Commons to resolve, in order to prevent such oppression for the future, that no subject should be taxed for more than a tenth part of his estate, real and personal, which they called a moderate, parliamentary, easy, and equal rate.

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With regard to the income of Ireland, during the reign of this monarch, after the Earl of Strafford's death, it is only necessary to remark, that the Irish were with difficulty prevailed upon to grant the King 30,000*l.*; one half to be paid in money at different periods; and the other half in cattle. And when the Lords Justices, reduced to the last necessity for supplies to maintain the forces, ventured, without any authority from the Crown, to establish an excise, such was the poverty of the country, that, although the duty was laid at one half of the value of the commodity, it did not prove in any degree productive.

The nature and value of the Irish revenue is better known while it was subject to the military government of Cromwell, than at any former era. The following statement of it was laid before the English Parliament in 1659:

By the assessment of 9000 <i>l.</i> a-month	-	-	£108,000
By the customs and excise in farm	-	-	70,000
By rents of lands, houses, &c.	-	-	2,679
By rents of impropriations, &c.	-	-	7,611
By sheriffs' accounts, the hanaper account, with fines and amerciaments	-	-	1,500

Total annual income of Ireland £207,790

The expences were thus stated:

The pay of the army	-	-	£311,582	5	4
The Lord Lieutenant	-	-	3,864	8	11
The Council and their clerks	-	-	7,600	0	0
The Court of Chancery	-	-	2,258	0	0
The Upper Bench	-	-	1,167	10	0
The Common Pleas	-	-	1,007	10	0
The Exchequer	-	-	1,991	15	0
The Justices of Assize	-	-	1,000	0	0
The President of Connaught, and the Provost-martial of Leinster and Munster	-	-	1,887	0	0
The overseers of Dublin Hospital, &c.	-	-	1,807	8	4
To eight receivers of the revenue	-	-	165	0	0
To eight comptrollers and searchers of the customs	-	-	1,150	0	0
Pensions to maimed soldiers and their widows and orphans	-	-	3,000	0	0
Allowances, contingencies, and casual issues	-	-	8,000	0	0

Total £346,480 17 7

Thus

Thus it appears, that the revenue of Ireland at that time was deficient to the amount of about 138,790*l.* per annum.

It is also to be observed, that the above revenue, however inadequate it was to the expences of government, was procured with the utmost difficulty, and raised by means the most oppressive; and nothing but the wise, just, and liberal administration of Henry Cromwell, the Protector's son, could have prevented perpetual insurrections among the natives, notwithstanding all the military force that existed in that country.

The destruction of the protectoral government, and the restoration of the royal family to the throne, was celebrated with as much zeal and loyalty in Ireland as in any part of His Majesty's dominions; as an evidence of which, the convention of estates voted a present of 20,000*l.* to His Majesty, 4000*l.* to the Duke of York, and 2000*l.* to the Duke of Gloucester; imitating in this respect the example of the English legislature: and when the Irish parliament was assembled, it gave still more ample testimonies of its regard to the crown, by granting, 1. An hereditary revenue to the King, his heirs and successors. 2. An excise for the purpose of maintaining the army. 3. The subsidy of tonnage and poundage to defray naval charges. And 4. a tax on hearths, at the rate of 2*s.* per annum, for the support and dignity of the crown, and by way of compensation for the abolition of the court of wards, and the profits attending it.

The amount of the Irish revenue during this reign can be pretty nearly ascertained. At first, it was inadequate to the public expences; and the Duke of Ormond, when appointed Lord-Lieutenant, found it necessary, at one time, to draw on the English treasury for 15,000*l.* It afterwards arose to 300,000*l.* a-year; of which 36,000*l.* were expended on ships to secure the coast of Ireland, and 44,000*l.* in supporting the garrison of Tangiers, while that fortress was kept possession of. Private grants also were occasionally conferred by the King's express directions.

In regard to the temporary grants during this reign, they were not very numerous; and the produce of each it is difficult now to ascertain.

At one period, there was such a scarcity of specie in Ireland, that the Lord-Lieutenant found it necessary to accept of the payment of part of the subsidies, not in money, but in provisions: and when the fire of London naturally excited the compassion and humanity of those who were themselves exempted from so dreadful a calamity, a subscription being raised for the unhappy sufferers, 30,000 beeves, the principal species of wealth which the country afforded, were subscribed for that generous purpose.

The oppression and misconduct of those whom James II. had trusted had so much reduced the revenue, that when he personally attempted to preserve that part of his dominions, he was reduced to the most desperate expedients. By one act of parliament, the real estates of those who did not immediately acknowledge his authority, or who aided his opponents, were forfeited, and the personal estates of all absentees vested in the crown. The native Irish had granted a monthly subsidy of 20,000*l.* to be levied on the land; but that being insufficient for his military expenditure, he exacted, by his own authority, a similar tax upon personal property. The issuing of base money, however, was the circumstance of which his Irish subjects had the greatest reason to complain.

James, it seems, had seized the tools and engines of one Moore, who, by virtue of a patent from Charles II., enjoyed the right of a copper coinage, established mints at Dublin and Limerick. Brass and copper of the basest kind, old cannon, broken bells, household utensils, were collected; and from every pound weight of such materials, valued at four-pence, pieces were coined and circulated to the amount of five pounds in nominal value. This wretched composition was made a legal tender in certain cases; it served for the pay of the troops, and by them it was poured on the Protestant traders. The nominal value was raised by subsequent proclamations; and as brass and copper grew scarce, it was made of still viler materials, of tin and pewter. It was obtruded on Protestants with many circumstances of insolence and cruelty. Old debts of 1000*l.* were discharged by pieces of vile metal, amounting to thirty shillings in intrinsic value. Attempts were made to purchase gold and silver at immoderate rates with the brass money; but this was quickly forbidden on pain of death; and when the Protestants attempted to exonerate themselves of these heaps of coin, by purchasing the staple commodities of the kingdom, James, by proclamation, set a rate on these commodities, demanded them at this rate, returned his brass on the proprietors, and, with all the meanness of a trader, exported them to France. It appeared indeed in the end, that James was the only gainer by this iniquitous project; and that in the final course of circulation, his own party became possessed of the greatest part of this adulterate coin, just at the time when William had power to suppress it by proclamation.

The reign of William III. was an interesting period, fraught with important consequences to the population, property, and general state of Ireland. The military expences of his war with James amounted to 3,851,655*l.*, and, from the state of the

the country, a speedy revenue could not be expected. The Public Revenue, from the landing of Duke Schomberg, on the 13th August, 1689, to the commencement of the year 1703, was; in—

1689	-	-	£ 8,884
1690	-	-	93,910
1691	-	-	274,949
1692	-	-	393,926
1693	-	-	444,183
1694	-	-	430,034
1695	-	-	438,304
1696	-	-	513,534
1697	-	-	548,967
1698	-	-	601,846
1699	-	-	710,932
1700	-	-	766,620
1701	-	-	697,955
1702	-	-	581,886

These sums were so inadequate to their purposes, that, had not government been supported with money remitted from the English exchequer, Ireland must have been, perhaps, for ever, separated from that country. It was expected that the forfeitures which took place after the Revolution would reimburse the English nation, but notwithstanding the great exertions of the English House of Commons, interest, favour, and sometimes a just regard to meritorious services, rendered this resource of little avail. A poll tax was tried here, as it was in England and Scotland, but, after a short experience of its inefficacy, this obnoxious and unproductive system was abandoned in the three kingdoms.

During the earlier years of Queen Anne's reign, the income of Ireland exceeded half a million: in her latter days it was less productive.

In the reign of George I. the revenue did not materially differ from that of his predecessor. The gross income for two years, ending 25th March, 1723, amounted to 1,242,815*l.*, but the net produce only to 939,619*l.*, or at the rate of 469,809*l.* per annum.

The most remarkable event connected with the financial and commercial circumstances of the country, during this monarch's reign, was an application for the establishment of a bank, in 1720, and the steps which were taken by parliament on the subject.

It is not known who was the author of this proposal, but it was entered into by the Earl of Abercorn, and several other lords

lords and gentlemen of Ireland, with great zeal, and its establishment recommended in a speech from the throne; but the Commons, on a division of 150 to 80, resolved against it, and declared "that if any member of the House, or commoner of Ireland, should presume to solicit, or endeavour to procure, any grant, or to get the great seal put to any charter, for erecting a public bank, contrary to the declared sense and resolutions of the House, he should incur their highest displeasure, and be deemed to act in contempt of the authority of the House, and *an enemy to his country.*"

During the reign of George II. there was an accumulation of an unappropriated surplus fund, amounting to 471,404*l.* at the disposal of the crown or of parliament. This redundancy of treasure, instead of being employed for purposes of real national improvement, was almost entirely wasted in grants, ostensibly for public, but really for private purposes. This system was so little concealed, that the committee of supply, in which these jobs originated, was emphatically called "*the scrambling committee.*"

The progress of the Irish revenue during the reign of George III. cannot be minutely detailed in a work of this nature. It may be sufficient to observe, that at the commencement, in 1760, the gross produce of the duties and taxes for that and the succeeding year were at the rate of 731,590*l.* per annum.

The following is the state of the Revenue for ten years, ending 25th March:

	£
1791 - -	1,190,684
1792 - -	1,172,332
1793 - -	1,107,940
1794 - -	1,067,004
1795 - -	1,355,181
1796 - -	1,376,980
1797 - -	1,527,628
1798 - -	1,645,714
1799 - -	1,861,471
1800 - -	2,684,261
	14,989,195
Average,	1,498,919

The general expences of Ireland, independent of military charges, amounted in 1799 to the following sums:

1. Civil

	£
1. Civil list - - - - -	143,096
2. Pensions - - - - -	110,433
3. Permanent parliamentary grants - - -	154,769
4. Annual parliamentary grants - - -	225,306
	633,604
5. Military expences, anno 1799 -	4,958,208
Total	5,591,812

This great expenditure does not include the interest of the national debt, of which the following is an account, as it stood on the 25th of March, 1800:

1. Principal of the debt -	£ 25,662,640	0	0
2. Amount of capital redeemed	339,863	16	0
3. Annual interest - - - -	1,136,563	11	1
4. Interest of the capital purchased	16,993	3	9
5. Sinking-fund - - - -	252,690	3	4
6. Management - - - -	6,500	0	0
7. Total charges - - - -	1,395,753	14	5

It was attended with considerable difficulty to adjust the principles on which the expenditure of the two islands, independent of the interest of the national debt, to which they were respectively liable, ought to be regulated after the Union. It was at last determined, that the expenditure of the United Kingdom should be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts for Great Britain, and two parts for Ireland. At the expiration of twenty years, the future expenditure to be defrayed in such proportion as the united parliament should deem just and reasonable, upon certain data then fixed; which proportions may be revised at periods not more distant than twenty years, nor less than seven years from each other; unless, previous to any such period, the united parliament shall have declared that the general expences of the empire shall be defrayed indiscriminately, by equal taxes imposed on the like articles in both countries.

NATIONAL DEBT. The government of Ireland was occasionally indebted in small sums, not exceeding from one to four hundred thousand pounds, at different periods, from 1715 to 1749, when the accumulation before noticed took place. The present debt properly commenced in the year 1761, and its progress for some time, as appears from the following statement, was very slow indeed, compared to the rapid strides which it has since taken.

Progress

Progress of the National Debt of Ireland.

Debt, anno 1761	-	-	£ 223,438
1771	-	-	773,320
1781	-	-	1,551,704
1791	-	-	2,464,590
1797	-	-	7,082,256
1798	-	-	11,059,256
1799	-	-	17,466,540
1800	-	-	25,662,640
January 1801	-	-	31,950,656
1802	-	-	36,464,461
1803	-	-	40,663,532
1804	-	-	44,749,325

This debt, in the year which ended with January 1813, was increased to 79,339,057*l.* 17*s.* 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*, of which 60,176,751*l.* were guaranteed by and payable in Great Britain, and 19,162,306*l.* 17*s.* 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.* in Ireland.

For reduction of this debt means have been adopted similar to those used in respect to the national debt of England.

EXPENDITURE. The expenditure of Ireland is now divided into two branches. The first consists of those charges to which it is separately liable; the second includes those to which it is subject jointly with Great Britain. The separate charges of Ireland are, 1*st.* Interest and charges of the national debt, anno 1803; 2*d.* Interest on exchequer bills; 3*d.* Issues for grants prior to the Union; 4*th.* Funds appropriated for local purposes. The payments made for grants prior to the Union were, 1*st.* Relief of suffering loyalists; 2*d.* Union compensation; 3*d.* Grant for inland navigation; 4*th.* Lottery prizes; 5*th.* Principal of Exchequer bills; 6*th.* Discount on prompt payment of loan deposits.

The expences in which Great Britain and Ireland, in conformity to the articles of the Union, are jointly concerned, are as follows: 1*st.* Civil list; 2*d.* Pensions; 3*d.* Other permanent charges; 4*th.* Bounties; 5*th.* Militia and deserters' warrants; 6*th.* Ordnance; 7*th.* Army; 8*th.* Extraordinaries of the army; and, 9*th.* Miscellaneous services.

BANK. Mention has been made of the failure of a plan in the reign of George the First for establishing a bank in Ireland. The attempt was made with better success in the times of George the Third.

The first act passed in favour of this institution was in 1781-2. The original capital was only 600,000*l.*, and the privileges

privileges which it obtained were to cease on twelve months' notice after the first of January, 1794. By a subsequent act, the capital was increased to 1,000,000*l.*, and the term enlarged to the first of January, 1816; and by a third act, without prolonging the term, power was given to increase the capital to 1,500,000*l.*, at which sum it now stands. No person was allowed to subscribe more than 10,000*l.* The corporation have a common seal, and the usual attendant privileges. They may sue and be sued in the same manner as any other corporate body; and they are enabled also to hold lands and tenements in fee simple.

The Bank is conducted by a governor, a deputy-governor, and fifteen directors; eight or more of whom (the governor or deputy-governor being one) are a court. They are elected by the proprietors of stock to the amount of 500*l.*, between the 25th of March and the 25th of April in every year; but no more than two-thirds of those who were directors in the preceding year can be chosen. The qualification for a governor is 4,000*l.* sterling, and for a deputy governor, 3000*l.* These must be natural-born subjects, or naturalized. A director must possess 2,000*l.* stock; and no person can hold that office till he has taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration. All voters except Quakers were used to take the same oaths; but Roman Catholics now take that appointed by act of Parliament. Four general courts are held every year, and a general court may be summoned at any time. The governor and deputy-governor are allowed each 150*l.* per annum, and each director 100*l.*

The other banking establishments, according to Mr. Colquhoun, are,

Thirty in Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Belfast, and other large towns, whose united capitals may possibly amount to	-	-	-	-	-	£ 700,000
Thirty-three in the smaller towns, whose united capitals may possibly amount to	-	-	-	-	-	700,000
Total						£ 1,400,000

TRADE.

ON the subject of internal commerce it is necessary, in the first place, to consider the means of communication which nature and industry have afforded.

RIVERS

RIVERS AND CANALS. Ireland is singularly blest with the advantages of conveyance by water. The bays and inlets of the sea supply numerous harbours, and its rivers and lakes facilitate communication among the various parts of the country.

After several unsuccessful attempts to improve the internal communication by water, commissioners or undertakers were appointed in the reign of George II. who were to proceed at their own cost, but were authorised to impose certain tolls and duties for repayment of the expence, and for support of the necessary works. Afterward, instead of these commissioners or undertakers, a new and perpetual council was created, under the title of "The Corporation for promoting and carrying on an Inland Navigation in Ireland," composed of the Lord Lieutenant or Chief Governor, the Archbishop of Armagh, the Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, the three other Archbishops, the Speaker of the House of Commons for the time being, and twenty commissioners from each of the four provinces of Ireland, with a power of filling up vacancies by election.

CANALS. The *Grand Canal* runs from Dublin to Shannon Harbour, while another branch proceeds to Athy, where it joins the Barrow. This canal, although principally used for passage boats, serves for the carriage of corn and turf.

The *Royal Canal*, one branch of which commences at Glasmanogue, in the county of Dublin, and the other at the Liffey, near the Lots, extends to Coolnahay, beyond Mullingar; the two branches uniting near Prospect, on the Glasnevin road. It is used for the same purposes as the Grand Canal. A canal has been cut from *Coal Island* to *Armagh*, and from that inland sea, near Portadown to Newry. An attempt has been made to cut a canal from *Lough Neagh* to *Belfast*, and it is pretty far advanced. In like manner, there is an unfinished canal between *Ballyshannon* and *Beleek*. All these are the work of individuals, formed into companies, who, with the exception of those engaged in that last-mentioned, have received assistance from the public purse, amounting altogether to 379,388*l.*

ROADS. The roads of Ireland are justly celebrated for the excellence of their construction. There are no bye-roads, and all the highways are of two widths, a mail-coach way being broader than the others. As the substratum of the greater part of the country is lime-stone, these roads are formed of that material, broken into small fragments. In some places, the old-fashioned paved roads still exist. The making or repairing of roads is thus effected: Any person who wishes to have a new road constructed, presents a memorial to the Grand

Jury at the Assizes, with an affidavit of its necessity; and if they allow the presentment, the road is either made or repaired, as the case requires; the account of expenditure is in like manner presented, sworn to, and must receive the sanction of the Judge. The "undertaker" then, by virtue of an order from the Grand Jury, receives his money from the treasurer of the county. The first presentment is liable to be traversed by any land-holder in the barony, on his giving the parish twenty-one days' notice.

Mail coach roads are determined upon by the Post-master General, and the expence is defrayed by a tax on the county. The money for other roads is raised by a baronial tax, each barony paying the expence of the roads within its own boundaries, although it receives the authority of the Grand Jury to assess the whole county.

There are few turnpikes in Ireland; but on some of the great roads leading from Dublin, which are much used for the conveyance of goods, and frequented by carriages of various kinds, a toll is collected. The best roads are those in the neighbourhood of Collon and Drogheda, and on that side of the county of Meath adjacent to Louth. They are formed of a black siliceous kind of stone, procured from quarries in the vicinity, and broken into small pieces. It has almost the appearance of coal, and forms a peculiarly hard and compact bottom.

THE POST AND TRAVELLING. At the establishment of a regular post between England and Ireland, in the reign of Charles II., the postage was fixed at two-pence the single letter, if under eighty miles; four-pence between 80 and 140, and so on progressively. After this, many temporary arrangements took place, the post being sometimes farmed, but generally in the hands of government, until 1784, when the Irish post-office became independent of that of Great Britain; and regulations were enacted for the carriage of letters and newspapers, between the two kingdoms, and for the settlement of accounts between the post-offices; and for the accommodation of the trade with Ireland, post-office packets were established between Milford Haven and Waterford, in 1787.

At present there are three ports, by which the mail-bags are conveyed from England to Ireland. One from Port Patrick to Donaghadee; another from Holyhead to Dublin; and a third from Milford to Bolton, near Waterford. Packets which carry over passengers, sail from Ireland to each of these ports in Great Britain, every night when the wind serves, except on Sundays; and from Port Patrick, Holyhead, and Milford, every day, except that on which the Sunday night's mail-coach arrives,

arrives, but brings no mail-bag from London. Between Dublin and Holyhead there are express boats, which are sent out when the weather is so bad that the packets cannot put to sea. A new harbour is constructing at Howth, on the outside of Dublin bay, intended for a packet station; and it is estimated that the average passage will be performed in eight hours; at present it requires twelve: that from Port Patrick to Donaghadee takes four hours, and crossing from Milford to Bolton employs fifteen.

Mail-coaches are dispatched from Dublin to Belfast, Londonderry, Sligo, Galway, Limerick, Cork, Kilkenny, Waterford, and Wexford, pass through many towns, establishing extensive communications. There is also one cross mail from Cork to Limerick, and there are stage-coaches to Drogheda, Newry, Belfast, Sligo, Cork, and Limerick.

MANUFACTURES. The principal objects of national industry are now to be enumerated.

LINEN. The foundation of the linen manufacture in Ireland was laid by the unfortunate Earl of Strafford, while chief governor. The aptitude of the soil, in many parts, for the production of flax, and the low price of labour, particularly spinning, to which so many women were bred, convinced him the manufacturer in Ireland could undersell, by twenty per cent. at least, those of Holland and France. Impressed with this idea, he sent to Holland for flax seed, and to the Netherlands and France for competent workmen; and, embarking in the business with zeal, expended in promoting it 30,000*l.* of his private fortune. During the subsequent troubles an entire stop was put to this useful enterprize; but it was revived by the Duke of Ormond, who procured several acts of parliament for its encouragement, and also for inviting Protestant strangers to settle in the kingdom. He dispatched skilful persons to the Netherlands, to make themselves acquainted with the method of cultivating flax in that country, the manner of preparing and weaving it, as well as the process employed in bleaching the cloth, and likewise to engage workmen experienced in the different branches of the art to settle in Ireland. At the same time, he wrote to Sir William Temple, whom he had recommended to the King, as a man fit for the purpose, and who was then ambassador at Brussels, to send him over from Brabant 500 families, who had been employed in this manufacture; he procured others from Rochelle, and the Isle of Rhé; and Sir George Carteret supplied him with a considerable number from Jersey, and the adjacent parts of France. He built tenements for some of these people at Chapel-Izod, near
D d 2 Dublin,

Dublin, where, in a little time, 300 hands were at work, under the direction of Colonel Lawrence. Cordage, sail cloth, ticking, and linen, were speedily made of Irish yarn, equal in quality to any in Europe, and which could be sold at a less price than in any other country.

His Grace erected another manufactory at his own town of Carrick, assigning to the workmen one-half of the houses in the place, with 500 acres of land contiguous to the walls, for three lives, or thirty-one years, at a pepper-corn for the first, and afterwards at two-thirds of the old rent. All plans of improvement, among a people just beginning to emerge from barbarity, meet with formidable enemies from prejudice and inveterate habits. Indolence and ignorance were the greatest obstacles to the progress of the infant manufacture; but the Duke's perseverance surmounted every difficulty: by his example and encouragement, a spirit of enterprize, to which the country had before been a stranger, was at length excited, and he had the satisfaction, before he quitted the government in 1669, of seeing the linen business in a promising condition.

The importance of this branch of industry soon attracted the attention of parliament, and considerable sums of money were from time to time voted for its support. That the business might be better superintended, a board of trustees, who first met in 1711, was established, and in order that no encouragement might be wanting, bounties on the exportation of Irish linen were offered, and in 1743 they were distributed.

Under the direction of the above-mentioned board, the cambric manufactory was also introduced in 1737, by a Mr. De Joncourt, who brought over workmen from France. It was first established at Dundalk, on the estate of Lord Viscount Limerick, afterwards Earl of Clanbrassil, and being supported by a voluntary contribution of 30,000*l.* was, in 1770, in a very thriving condition. The author of a pamphlet on the absentees of Ireland, published in Dublin in 1767, says, that at that period there were upwards of one thousand five hundred looms employed in weaving cambric in the northern part of the country.

The preparation of the flax plant, and the various operations it undergoes before it is made into cloth, give employment to so many people in Ireland, and bring into the national coffers so large an annual income, that the linen which is formed from it has, with great propriety, been called the staple manufacture of the country. To give an idea of its extent and importance, Mr. Wakefield refers to a table shewing the number of acres on which flax grew in 1810. It is copied from a
return

return made to the trustees of the linen board; but it appears by a note of the secretary, that it includes no piece of land less than an acre; and as a great number of small patches are employed in raising flax in Ireland, estimating them at 20,000 acres, and adding that number to the result given by the table, (76,749 acres,) the sum total will be about 100,000 acres. Allowing the average produce to be 30 stone per acre, at 10s. 6d. per stone, the average price in the last seven years, the annual produce of the raw material will be worth 1,500,000l.

The manufacture of this produce furnishes employ to a very large number of persons; machinery has been called in to aid the efforts of industry; but still it is observed, that the finest yarn must be wrought by the hand.

Spinning by the hand, in a country like Ireland, where the sedentary occupations of the female must be so often interrupted, not only by domestic, but agricultural labours, is attended with one very striking advantage, namely, that it can be suspended and resumed without inconvenience, and thus small intervals of time are filled up that would otherwise be lost. To this it may be added, that the women in Ireland seem to have a peculiar talent for this kind of work. At least, such is the opinion of Dr. Franklin, who observes, that "of all women the Irish are the aptest, and best calculated to spin linen thread well, who labouring little in any kind with their hands, have their fingers more supple and soft than others of as poor condition among us."

Yarn spun by the hand is carried to different degrees of fineness, in different parts of the country, according to the nature of the manufactories which have been established there, and the quality of the flax they produce: but, in this respect, female labour has certainly the advantage over machinery, as the yarn produced by the former may attain to a degree of fineness which cannot be given to it by the latter. Some instances of the ingenuity of Irish women in spinning are extraordinary; and the following account, extracted from the Belfast magazine, of the performances of Anne M'Quillin, of Comber, in the barony of Castlereagh, county of Down, deserves to be recorded. "Perhaps it may not be amiss to mention, that Anne cannot spin her superfine yarn except in mild weather. Frost, high winds, and excessive drought, are equally unfavourable: she then spins what she calls coarse yarn, that is, from 24 to 30 or 36 hanks in the pound. A few years ago, she could spin a hank of 64 in the pound in four days. Of the finer staple she can now spin a hank in the week, when the

weather is favourable; but the superfine, that is about 100 hanks in the pound, requires nearly twice the time." It is added, by way of explanation, that each cut contains 120 threads, and each thread measures $2\frac{1}{2}$ yards. Hence it is evident, that the thread of her yarn, of different hanks from the pound of flax, is in length,

	Miles.	Furl.	Poles.	Yds.
64 hanks - -	{ 102	6	34	2 Irish measure.
	{ 130	7	7	1 English do.
85 hanks - -	{ 136	4	34	2 Irish.
	{ 173	6	36	2 English.
and				
105 ditto per lb. no	{ 168	6	0	0 Irish.
less than	{ 214	6	7	0 English.

There are many parts of Ireland where the manufacture extends no farther than to spinning, markets being held in these places for yarn only. The quality of the linen depends upon the fineness of the yarn, and on that account the finest is manufactured in those parts where the finest yarn is spun. In many instances the flax is raised, spun into yarn, and woven into cloth, by the same person and his family. Taking Ireland, however, in general, the cultivators of flax are much more numerous than the spinners, as is shewn by the exportation of unspun yarn; and the spinners outnumber the weavers, as appears by the same list, in the exportation of linen yarn. Linen is woven of different widths, from ten-inch bandle linen made in Kerry, to 5-4th sheetings manufactured in the neighbourhood of Coote-hill, and of different qualities, from coarse thin 3-4th wides in Antrim, which sell for sixpence, to cambrics worth one guinea per yard. The width of linen varies in different places, in a manner for which it would be difficult to assign an adequate reason. The manufacture of sail-cloth, is confined chiefly to the neighbourhood of Cork; but considerable sums are paid by the Linen Board to encourage the manufacture of sail-cloth, duck, canvas, and drilling, spun by machinery; and it is thought this part of the trade might advantageously be extended.

The bleachers are distinct persons from the manufacturers. The latter carry their webs to market, where they are purchased by the former, in order to be finished. In that state they are sold generally through the medium of factors in Dublin or London, who supply capital, that credit may be given to the purchaser. In Dublin they allow two months' credit,

credit, and in London eight. The linens exported are of a thinner texture than those used in England, and the country trade requires a stouter sort than those sold in London. In England great suspicions are entertained in regard to the arts practised by the bleachers in Ireland, and on that account, large quantities of linen are imported, either in a brown, or a half-bleached state; to aid the effect of these precautions in preventing fraud, government has appointed inspectors of the yarn and sealers of the web; and securities are entered into by the bleacher, who is also obliged to register his name.

Beside the bounties already mentioned, on spun yarn, there are others on seed sown, and three halfpence per yard on linen exported, under the value of 1s. 6d. per yard.

COTTON. The machinery invented by Sir Richard Arkwright has been introduced into Ireland ever since 1785, and many flourishing establishments are formed in various parts of the kingdom.

WOOLLEN. The woollen trade of Ireland was long checked and depressed through the jealousy of the woollen manufacturers of England; but since the Act of Union, the two countries are placed in this respect upon an equal footing. Sufficient time has not yet been afforded for very expensive establishments, but in many parts of Ireland this manufacture is carried on with success, in coarse cloths, friezes, and flannel. Merino sheep are introduced, and fine broad cloth begins to be made.

TANNERIES. In Ireland, notwithstanding the number of cattle slaughtered every year, especially in time of war, it does not appear that this occupation is carried on to such an extent as might be expected. The want of oak bark is a great impediment. Birch and alder bark are used as substitutes, but the chief obstacle to the good preparation of leather in that country, is said to be the levying the duty on the pit, instead of imposing it on the skin, as in England; this makes it the interest of the tanner to run as many hides through the same liquor as possible, whereby the skins are imperfectly prepared, the process being but half performed.

GLOVES are manufactured in Ireland, but not to a great extent. Those called Limerick gloves are made of the skins of calves taken from fat cows when they are slaughtered, and sold at from two to three shillings per head.

STOCKINGS. The stocking manufacture is carried on chiefly in Dublin, and is very much confined to the preparation of coarse woollen articles, though it is certain that this branch might be very much extended.

IRON. The manufacture of iron in Great Britain is particularly favoured by the inexhaustible supply of coals, and the great perfection of machinery. It may appear astonishing, therefore, that it has made so little progress in the sister kingdom, since, in no country of Europe, is better iron to be met with than Ireland may produce for all common purposes.

An attempt has been made at Arigna, in the county of Roscommon, to erect iron-works on a considerable scale; but the manufacture failed for want of fuel; and to the same cause may be ascribed the want of potteries and some other manufactures, the materials for which are abundantly produced. Hardware articles are manufactured in Dublin; and some coarse implements, such as reaping-hooks, scythes, or sheers, are made in the town of Carlow.

MISCELLANIES. Distillation, brewing, grinding corn, and curing provisions, though they do not properly fall under the denomination of manufactures, may be introduced here; because they are occupations, which like manufactures, contribute to give employment to the people, and to render labour productive. *Distillation* is carried on to a great extent in licensed stills, and to an incredible amount in those which are illicit. *Breweries* are established at Cork, Fermoy, Limerick, Waterford, Roscrea, Dublin, Belfast, Navan, Armagh, Donoughmore, Dungannon, and a few other places. Some *cyder* is made throughout the south of Ireland, but not in such quantities as will render it a common beverage among the people, as it is in the west of England. The Cacagee cyder, made in Clare, is highly extolled. — *Grinding.* The business of converting wheat into flour is increasing in Ireland; a considerable change with respect to food, having taken place in the habits of the people in many parts of the country, wheaten bread begins now to be much more used than it was formerly. Of late years a great sale has arisen for bran, which is carried to the manufacturing parts of England, to be used in the printing of cottons. There are regular flour factors in Dublin; the flour is sent thither by country millers, in bags containing each two cwt., and the person to whom it is consigned is responsible for the solvency of the buyer.

Salting Provisions. Lord Sheffield says that provisions are a natural staple article of commerce for Ireland, because her climate is better adapted to it than any other; her cattle can remain longer in the field, and her beef can be cured a greater part of the year than elsewhere, from the temperature of her seasons, neither frost nor heat interrupting that business for a long time. The provision trade is principally confined to the city of Cork, whence most of the beef, pork, and butter, produced

duced in the southern districts of Ireland is exported. The average number of oxen slaughtered is calculated at ten thousand, and that of cows at 8000. The beef cured is divided into three sorts: planters', India, and common beef. The planters' beef has among it no part of the head, neck, or shoulders, and the same parts, with the back-bone and shanks, are separated from the India beef. The common beef is packed up with the addition of those coarse parts which have been taken from the planters' and India beef. The merchant purchases the carcase of the grazier by weight; cows, and small lean cattle bring the least price, and fat oxen of six years old the greatest. The meat is packed either into tierces or barrels; the former containing 300lbs. and the latter 200lbs. of flesh independently of salt. The expedition with which the animals are slaughtered, the meat cut up and salted, and afterwards packed, is astonishing.

Pork is packed in the same manner. St. Ube's salt, on account of the coarseness of the grain, is preferred to any other. One half of the hides procured at Cork are exported; the heavy ones are retained at home for shoe leather. In 1807, about 3,600 head of cattle were killed, and 50,000 hogs, but it appears that the slaughtering of the former is on the decline, while that of the latter increases. In the provision trade, Dublin seems to be gaining both upon Cork and Limerick. *Bacon* and *hams* are salted on an extensive scale at Limerick, Clonmel, and Waterford, whence they are shipped to London, where they are finally cured, and dried by means of fires made with shavings of different kinds of wood, each of which gives them a different flavour. Thus a Westphalia or a Yorkshire ham is frequently made from a hog salted in Ireland. *Glue* is made at Cork and Limerick. The *hoofs* of cattle are an article of exportation, being sent to Birmingham, where they are converted into snuff-boxes. In Ireland, the horns are softened by the application of heat, and made into lanterns, knife-handles, combs, &c. A great deal of *bone* is burnt into ivory black, particularly in Dublin.

Coarse hats are manufactured in various parts of Ireland; chiefly of wool, some of goats' hair, but although goat-skins abound Chamois leather is not made. Large quantities of *kelp* are manufactured. It is used by the bleachers, and is made along the coast of Clare, Galway, Mayo, Sligo, and Donegal. In the north of Ireland, at Lisburn, Belfast, and Moyallan, there are *vitriol* manufactories, the proprietors of which make *muratic acid* and *Glauber's salts*.

Glass manufactories are established at Dublin, Waterford, and Belfast; but the use of English glass is prevalent in Ireland,
and

and the reason assigned for it is the want of fuel. *Sugar* is refined, and houses are established for that purpose both at Belfast and at Dublin. *Stone quarries* are so common, that bricks are little used. The Irish bricks are inferior to the English. There are few *salt* manufactories. Those of Waterford only purify the Cheshire rock salt, and bring it into a state fit for use.

FISHERIES. The fisheries of Ireland may be classed under four heads: — 1st. *Inland fishery*; 2d. The *white fishery*, comprehending chiefly cod, ling, &c.; 3d. The *herring fishery*; and 4th. The *shell fishery*.

Inland. All the lakes and many of the rivers, abound with trout and pike, the former of which are in season the whole year; and though fly fishing is practised in summer for amusement, the fish in general are caught in nets. The rivers produce pike and salmon: this valuable fish is said to become scarce owing to the prevalence of illegal practices in taking it at an undue age and in improper seasons. The two largest salmon fisheries in Ireland are at Ballyshannon, in Donegal, and Coleraine, in Londonderry: the former belongs to Admiral Pakenham, the latter to the London Society, who have leased it to Irishmen, by whom it is re-let at a considerable profit to a company who keep fast sailing smacks, to convey the fish to Liverpool, and other places. Eel weirs are common in almost all the rivers of Ireland. Of this fish there are some very fine species, as the silver eel and the sand eel.

2d. *The White fishery.* Whether the inland fisheries of Ireland, as at present carried on, are useful or detrimental to the country, is a point which requires some consideration; for it can hardly be supposed, that the benefit arising from the food which they supply, can be equivalent to the mischief they occasion from the damming up of the water, by which thousands of acres are flooded at all seasons, and to the quantity of land thus destroyed to render the fishing beds prolific. Yet as a great portion of the inhabitants of Ireland is catholic, large quantities of fish are necessary for Lent and fast days. The land-carriage however is both inconvenient and expensive; Dublin and many maritime places are supplied by means of wherries and other craft, but the inland places are seldom able to get fresh sea-fish. Cod may be caught in abundance particularly at the Nymph bank about ten or twelve leagues south-east from Dungarvon, but the climate of Ireland is not favourable to the curing of it. The same bank also produces soles, plaice, and all kinds of ground fish. In other parts, turbot, skate, shad, sprats, and many other fish abound. The formation of a company is strongly recommended for the purpose

pose of catching fish on the great bank which stretches nearly from the coast of Galway, in an oblique direction to Newfoundland, at the depth of from twenty to thirty fathoms; and of various breadths, from fifty to one hundred miles and more, extending from latitude 53° N. long. $10^{\circ} 10'$ to lat. 45° and long. 53° west. In support of this proposition, it is said that the western coast of Ireland is so peculiarly adapted for an extensive fishery, that 2000 vessels might be easily loaded in a season with fish of various kinds, and of the best quality. It is also believed that a very productive turbot fishery might be carried on at the mouth of the Shannon.

3d. *The herring fishery.* Formerly the herring fishery on the coast of Ireland was thought worthy of attention, and a considerable quantity of herrings was exported, so long ago as between the years 1580 and 1655. Of late, however, this branch of fishing has much declined, in consequence of the fish having deserted the coast. At Arklow, in the county of Wicklow, forty-five boats, six hands in each, are employed in the herring fishery. About fifty fishing boats ply about Killybegs. In Sligo, and on the whole north-west coast, the herring fishery was of great importance till the year 1783 or 1784; but after that time it failed entirely. A few herrings are still caught during the summer season, but the quantity is so small as to be scarcely worth notice. A few are taken in other places; but, on the whole, the herring fishery in Ireland is in a very declining state.

4th. *The shell fishery.* The art of catching shell-fish seems to be less understood in Ireland than it is in Norway and Scotland. Lobsters and crabs are found in many places; their quality is generally good, particularly in Galway and Wexford. The Irish oysters are very bad; the grounds where they are found are not private property, hence, little care is bestowed on their improvement. While these places remain common, and no regulations are established to prevent the oysters from being taken up in an improper manner, or at an unseasonable time, it is impossible that they can attain to the necessary perfection. The pearl muscle is met with in several of the Irish rivers, and particularly in the Blackwater, in the county of Waterford.

FOREIGN TRADE. That part of the Irish trade which properly comes under the denomination of foreign, is very small. Many establishments, however, are formed, and there is every reason to hope that capital and industry will be found to give it the most beneficial effect. In 1811 the total imports are stated at 7,055,214*l.* the exports at 5,923,112*l.*

THE METROPOLIS.

SITUATION. Dublin, the metropolis of Ireland, is situated in the province of Leinster, in the county of Dublin; at the bottom of a fine bay, about eight miles in diameter; called, after the city, Dublin bay. The river Liffey divides the town into nearly two equal parts, and empties itself into the bay about half a mile below the present city. Dublin is the second city in His Britannic Majesty's dominions, and may rank with the finest cities in Europe for extent, magnificence, and commerce. Its form is nearly square. From the Royal Hospital at Kilmainham, the western extremity, to the eastern, at the Marine School, it is two miles and a half long; and is in its greatest breadth about one and a half: with some irregularities, it is about six miles in circumference. The road, called the circular road, surrounding the city, is eight miles in circuit, and not to be surpassed for excellence or beauty and variety of prospect. Dublin is computed to contain about 16,000 houses, and to shelter about 144,000 persons; and is situated in the latitude of $53^{\circ} 21'$ north, and $6^{\circ} 2'$ west longitude from London.

HISTORY. Of the time when Dublin was first built, no authentic records are to be obtained. The early Irish historians are very little to be credited; the first authentic account is in Ptolemy, who flourished in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about the year of Christ 140. The city at present most generally called Dublin has been known and made mention of under various names. The ancient Irish called it *Drom choll coil*, that is, the *brow of a hazel wood*, from a wood of those trees immediately about it; others have since called it Bally-ath-cliath, that is, *a town on the ford of hurdles*; by reason that before the river Liffey was embanked, access to it was made by means of hurdles laid on the low and marshy parts adjoining the river; and the harbour was distinguished by the name of *Lean Cliath*, or the harbour of hurdles or wicker work, either from the circumstance last mentioned or from the weirs made of hurdles, and placed in rivers and bays by the ancient Irish for the purpose of taking fish. Dublin was called Eblana by Ptolemy; which word is a supposed elision of Deblana, the termination of two British words *dur* and *lhun*, signifying *black water*, or a *black channel*, from the black boggy bed of the river in this place; and hence comes Dublinum or Dublin. The then inhabitants of Fingall called it Divelin, and in Welch it is Dinas Dulin, or the city of Dublin to this day.

Who

Who were the original inhabitants of Dublin is a matter as uncertain and obscure as is the time in which it was built. The *Blanii*, *Eblani*, or *Deblani*, inhabited the tract of country now comprehending the city and county of Dublin, and part of the county of Meath. From what country this colony came, is not ascertained; probably from that part of Britain called Wales. Its contiguity, the affinity of language, and close uniformity of ancient religious rites and ceremonies, confirm the opinion.

Dublin has not always been the capital of Ireland, nor yet of the province of Leinster: Tarah, in Meath, had been for ages, perhaps before the very existence of Dublin, the residence of the kings of Ireland, notwithstanding no vestige can be traced of any pile denoting former consequence. History attributes, if not the building, the strengthening and fortifying of Dublin to the Ostmen or Danes, who had settlements in that part of the kingdom as early as in the year 795, on the score of trade; but aided by their countrymen who in 838 entered the river Liffey with a fleet of sixty sail, they commenced hostilities and ravaged the country. Having fortified themselves, and secured their unjust possessions against the natives, they submitted to the government of one of their leaders, and titled him king of Dublin. They sustained considerable damage and loss, in a contest with Brien Boro, the valiant king of Munster, in 999, when he took and plundered the city. Having given hostages for their future allegiance, in 1000 they repaired and fortified the city with new works. On their conversion to Christianity, they founded the abbey of the blessed Virgin Mary, on the north side of the Liffey, about the year 948, for Benedictine monks, then the most celebrated order in the western world. About the year 962, it is said, that Edgar King of England conquered a great part of Ireland, and particularly the noble city of Dublin; but which, if he certainly did subdue, he did not long retain; for the Ostmen were undoubted masters of Dublin until the arrival of the English under the Earl of Pembroke.

About the year 1038, Sitric Mac Aulaffe, assisted by Donat, bishop of Dublin, founded the cathedral of Christ-church in the heart of the city. In 1162, the Ostmen of Dublin were overthrown by Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, who exercised greater power over them than any king had done for a length of time, and made them his tributaries. On account of the cruelty exercised by Dermot over his subjects, added to the aggravation of a rape committed by him on the wife of Tiernan O'Roirk, or Ruarc, king of Breffny, Roderic O'Connor, king of Ireland, invaded Leinster, the territories of
Dermot,

Dermot, drove him out of the country, and compelled the Oostmen of Dublin, who supported his cause, to give hostages for future conduct. Dermot fled to England to beg the succour of Henry II. in recovering his dominions; which he swore to hold as his vassal. Henry, who had long meditated an invasion of Ireland, to prevent aids from being sent to France, to the injury of his possessions on the continent, cheerfully gave permission to his subjects to espouse the cause of Dermot, who by promises of large recompence in lands, money, and cattle, engaged some leading men in his service. This circumstance laid the foundation of English ascendancy in Ireland. After various conflicts and turns of fortune, in which the English under Richard de Clare, Earl of Strigul and Pembroke, (called from his skill in archery, Strongbow), were nearly driven from the country, Henry himself arrived with a powerful army, received the homage of Strongbow, for the kingdom of Leinster, which he enjoyed from his marriage with Eva, the daughter of Dermot, and accepted the surrender of the cities of Waterford and Dublin, with some forts. In a perambulation of his newly-acquired territory, Henry was honoured with the voluntary submission of many of the principal Irish chieftains. As an act of favour to a few who submitted, he granted the protection of the laws of England; and established a court of justice, and offices for the administration of the law, and held a parliament in Dublin. He divided the districts subject to him into shires or counties; appointed judges, sheriffs, officers of state, and every appendage of English government. Dublin was honoured with his presence during the celebration of Christmas, which he kept in great state and splendour, gained the admiration of the people, settled the affairs of his government, and secured his great object of preventing the usual aids afforded to France by the Irish.

Having experienced the benefit the crown acquired, without charge, by private adventurers, he distributed large tracts of land to the leading personages who attended him, in order to make the part he had obtained defray the expence of subduing the whole. He granted the city of Dublin to the inhabitants of Bristol, with the same liberties and free customs which they enjoyed at Bristol, and throughout his land. Hugh de Lacy was appointed governor of Dublin, with a train of twenty knights. Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitzgerald were made his coadjutors, with an equal retinue. It was also provided, that in case of the death of any chief governor, the chancellor, treasurer, chief justice, and chief baron, keeper of the rolls, and serjeant at law, should be empowered, with consent

sent of the nobles of the land, to elect a successor, until the royal pleasure should be further known.

Henry being called from Ireland by the affairs of England, Earl Strongbow soon experienced the treachery of his pretended allies, and was reduced to very great and alarming straits; being scarcely able to hold Dublin alone, of all his great acquisitions. After experiencing much chagrin, and enduring a tedious illness, he died in 1177, of a mortification in the foot, and was buried with great solemnity, in Christ Church, Dublin, in sight of the cross, where still remains a monument to his memory. William Fitz Andlem, his successor, founded and endowed the monastery of St. Thomas the Martyr, in the western suburbs of the city, now called Thomas Court.

For several centuries, the history of Dublin is, like that of most other capitals, the narrative of confirmed immunities, improved edifices, institutions varying according to the change of manners, and occasional misfortunes. King John caused the castle to be built; Henry the Third gave the citizens a licence to carry a bridge over the Liffey; an attempt was made to establish a college by some pious prelates, in the hopes of reforming a licentious people; Henry IV. rewarded the loyalty of the citizens, by granting a licence that the mayors of Dublin should bear before them a gilded sword for the honour of the king, in the same manner as the mayor of London. Lambert Simnel was crowned king in Christ Church, Dublin; and the cause of Perkin Warbeck was so popular, that he would probably have received a similar honour, had the course of events permitted him to reach the capital. In 1534, the bold rebel Fitzgerald gained great ascendancy, and was enabled, for a time, to overawe the capital and threaten the castle. On Easter Sunday, 1550, the Liturgy was read, for the first time, in the English tongue in Christ Church, Dublin, in pursuance of an order from the king for that purpose; and the year following the same liturgy was printed in Dublin, being probably the first book ever printed in Ireland.

It was reserved for James I. to refine and civilize the country, which, after a perpetual contest of 440 years, had been completely subjected by Elizabeth. He took the most effectual step to heal the wounds of discord, by receiving the whole body of the Irish as his subjects, establishing circuits for the administration of justice, and making new grants of all lands and charters. A great point with Charles I. was to unite the churches of England and Ireland; and which, in concert with the Deputy Strafford, and Archbishop Laud, was effected.

The numerous attainders which had been issued against disaffected

affected persons during the reigns of Elizabeth and James, and the heavy restrictions upon the Romish religion, were causes of union to a large body, who, in 1641, formed a powerful conspiracy for the entire extirpation of the English on an appointed day. At the head of this confederacy were, Roger More, or Moore, a man of very active talents, and considerable influence among his countrymen, Lord Macquire, Sir Phelim O'Nial, or Neal, and Plunket, three of the most powerful of the old Irish. The negligence of the lords justices, Sir William Parsons and Sir John Borlase, would have rendered the city an easy and valuable prize, if the governors had not been roused by the conspiracy being disclosed to Parsons the day before its intended execution: immediate precaution was taken to secure the city and castle. The discovery, however, was too late to prevent the massacre, which the next day extended with diabolical fury over the kingdom. By the preservation of Dublin, the extent of ruin which otherwise would have taken place, was considerably lessened; for, besides the security of its own devoted inhabitants, it afforded refuge to numbers who escaped the slaughter that then raged abroad: the most moderate report of the victims who were destroyed in this shocking insurrection estimates them at 40,000.

The civil wars, begun soon after this horrible massacre, and the opposition made to the usurpation of Cromwell, overwhelmed the country with blood. The loyalty of Ormond shone conspicuous during this period, and at the Restoration he was created a duke and made Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, in which station he strenuously exerted himself for the advantage of his king and country. By the intrigues of his enemies he was dismissed from the government in 1669; but after some time, and experiencing much studied neglect from the king, in 1677, he was again appointed to that important station. It was during this time of his administration that he obtained the concurrence of Charles for founding a royal hospital, as an asylum for infirm and decayed soldiers; the foundation-stone of this, his long-meditated design, was laid in 1680, and it was completed in 1684, in the very year of his recal. It is called the Royal Hospital of Charles II. at Kilmainham, and is an institution that does honour both to the duke and the king. The same year, 1684, two stone bridges were erected across the Liffey, at Dublin; one was named Ormond Bridge, after the Duke; and the other Arran Bridge, in honour of the Earl of Arran, Ormond's son, and deputy two years before.

During the short reign of James II. religious zeal spread discord over the kingdom, and involved it in new troubles and misfortunes. James appointed the followers of the church of

Rome to all places, civil and ecclesiastical. The popish Earl of Tyrconnel procured the dismissal and obtained the place of the Earl of Clarendon, as Viceroy of Ireland; and Clarendon departed the country, followed by not less than fifteen hundred Protestant families, who looked upon their country as no longer affording them protection. The charter of Dublin was annulled, and a new one formed, which transferred all the rights and privileges of the corporation to Catholics; and the former possessors were left to bring their actions before popish judges, against the intruders; they applied to the King by their recorder, but to no purpose. The privileges of the University were invaded, and professorships and other dignities endeavoured to be filled by Catholics. This learned body finding their institution in danger of perishing, by Tyrconnel having stopped the pension annually paid out of the Exchequer, and which then formed the most considerable part of their revenue, determined to convert most of their plate into specie, and convey it to England to be disposed of. Tyrconnel had it seized in the port of Dublin, and lodged in stores for the King's use; but by advice of his more moderate partizans, the plate was restored to the College.

A rumour of a general massacre, meditated by the Catholics, being spread abroad, Dublin, in a moment, became a scene of uproar and confusion; a tumultuous crowd ran to the shipping in the harbour, to seek shelter and safety by flight; they suffered an ecstasy of terror, and their friends were left stupefied with expectation of the fatal blow: the calamities of 1641 were every where apprehended, in revenge for what the Catholics had suffered from Oliver Cromwell.

James, driven from England, came to Ireland from France, and landed at Kinsale, on March 12. 1689; and the 24th of the same month made public entry into Dublin, followed by a splendid train of French, British, and Irish adherents. He assured the Protestant clergy of protection and redress, and promised to defend and enlarge the privileges of the University; notwithstanding these assurances, on their refusing to admit one Green, a Catholic, as senior professor by his appointment, the members were forcibly ejected by his soldiers, and the private and public property of the community seized: the chapel was converted into a magazine, the chambers into prisons; and the members of the society obtained their personal liberty only on the express condition, that three of them should not meet together on pain of death. One Moor, a popish ecclesiastic, and a man of letters and liberal sentiments, was nominated provost; who, with the assistance of another of his order, preserved the library from the ravages of a barbarous army. The manner in which

James raised the value of money, and established mints, has already been mentioned.

King James met his Irish parliament in Dublin on the 7th of May; when he told them, "He had always been for liberty of conscience, and that nothing should ever persuade him to alter his mind, for he would have no other test but that of loyalty." He boasted the assistance he had received from France, and that it should be his chief study to make his people happy. The parliament attainted of rebellion two archbishops, one duke, sixteen earls, twenty viscounts, one viscountess, seven bishops, twenty-six barons, thirty-three baronets, fifty-one knights, eighty-three clergymen, and two thousand two hundred and twenty-three gentlemen, who were all declared traitors, and their estates confiscated or plundered. Tyrconnel was created a duke, and had 20,000*l.* a-year granted him out of the forfeited estates. This parliament sat only to the 20th July; yet in that short time they entirely destroyed the settlement of Ireland, by expelling the Protestant clergy from their livings, and the laity from their inheritances.

After James's defeat by King William, at the battle of the Boyne, he retreated to Dublin, where his friends were in anxious expectation every moment to receive him in triumph. They had deliberated whether, in case of a defeat, Dublin should not be set on fire; but he charged them, on their allegiance, to commit no such barbarous outrage; and advised them to liberate their prisoners, and submit to the Prince of Orange. William entered the city, and repaired to the cathedral of St. Patrick, to return thanks for his victory. On March 23. 1692, the war in Ireland was declared, by proclamation, to be at an end. Nine years afterward, the city, in grateful commemoration of their late deliverance from popery and slavery, erected in College-Green the statue of King William in brass, on horse-back, placed on a high marble pedestal, with the following inscription:—

Gulielmo Tertio;
Magnæ Britannię, Francię, et Hibernię,
Regi,
Ob Religionem Conservatam,
Restitutas Leges,
Libertatem Assertam,
Cives Dubliniensis hanc Statuam posuere.

Since this period, Dublin affords no history of any importance, distinct from that of the country at large.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT. This city in more antient times was governed by a provost, but in the reign of Henry IV., 1409, the citizens had liberty granted them to choose every year a

mayor and two bailiffs, which last were in time changed to sheriffs by Edward IV. King Charles II. in 1660 gave a collar of S.S.'s to the city of Dublin; but this collar having been lost when James was in Ireland, a new collar was given in 1697 to Bartholomew Van Homrich, Esq., then Lord Mayor, in value nearly a thousand pounds. Charles II. had, that this city might not seem inferior, in 1665, honoured the mayor with the style of *Lord*, Sir Daniel Belingham being the first who bore the title. And 500*l.* per annum were granted by the crown to support the honour of the office.

COMPANIES. The tradesmen here, as in other places, are divided into companies, which are so many corporations, and thus distinguished: 1. *Merchants.* 2. *Taylors.* 3. *Smiths.* 4. *Barber-Chirurgeons.* 5. *Bakers.* 6. *Butchers.* 7. *Carpenters.* 8. *Shoemakers.* 9. *Sadlers.* 10. *Cooks.* 11. *Tanners.* 12. *Tallow-chandlers.* 13. *Skinner and Glovers.* 14. *Weavers.* 15. *Shearmen and Dyers.* 16. *Goldsmiths.* 17. *Coopers.* 18. *Feltmakers.* 19. *Stationers, Cutlers, and Painter-stainers.* 20. *Bricklayers and Plasterers.* 21. *Curriers.* 22. *Hofiers.* 23. *Brewers and Maltsters.* 24. *Joiners and Wainscotters.*

WALLS. The walls and fortifications of Dublin were raised by the Ostmen, or Danes, in the ninth century; and repaired and strengthened by them in the year 1000. The English extended the walls and increased the importance of the city considerably, especially by building the castle, in 1205; yet, even at that time, the whole circumference of the city, including the castle walls, did not measure an entire Irish mile, as may be ascertained from the following connection, which is as well authenticated as the best testimony and the devastations of time will allow. From the north, called the storehouse, tower of the castle, the city wall extended to Dame's gate, which stood upon the rising of Cork hill; thence it was carried to Newman's tower, on the bank of the river; then continued till it joined Fyan's tower, and along the Merchant's quay, until it joined Bridge-gate on the south side of the old bridge; from Bridge-gate the wall was continued to Ormond-gate, up a steep hill to New-gate, and so along the rear of Back-lane to Nicholas-gate; thence, in a north-east direction at the back of a mill race in Bride's alley, till it extended to another gate, called Pole-gate; and from that it proceeded in nearly a straight line till it terminated with the castle at Birmingham tower.

CASTLE. The Castle of Dublin is generally believed to have been built by Henry de Loundres, Archbishop of Dublin, and governor of the English possessions, in 1220. The entrance into the castle from the city was on the north side, by a draw-

bridge, between two strong round towers, armed with a portcullis, called the gateway towers. Other towers formed a series of defences from the western gate. From the Wardrobe tower another curtain extended to the storehouse tower; and thence to the eastern gateway tower at the entrance into the Castle. The whole was an oblong quadrangle, and encompassed with a broad deep moat, partly dry and partly under water by the flowing of the tide, and a branch of the river Dodder, called the Poddle, which ran by the south curtain, and still runs in the same direction, through now a sewer under ground. There were two sally-ports, or postern-gates, in the walls of this fortress; one near Birmingham tower toward the west, the other by the eastern curtain to the offices in the back yard. The Castle was not converted to the purpose of the seat of government till the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Before that time, there seems to have been no fixed place for the reception of the chief governors: they sometimes held their courts at Thomas Court; sometimes at the palace of the Archbishop of Dublin, at St. Sepulchre's; but oftener than at any other place, at the Castle of Kilmainham. In 1559, the Castle of Kilmainham being much out of repair, the Castle of Dublin was considered a more convenient and fit place than any other for the residence of the chief governor. By order of Queen Elizabeth, in 1561 or 1562, the Castle was begun to be repaired and enlarged for the reception of the Lord Lieutenants; and has undergone such changes, in figure, extent, and beauty, that few traces of its pristine form remain at this day: great part of Birmingham and the Wardrobe towers are still extant; and in 1715, one of the gateway towers, and some of the old adjoining building, were standing. As the palace of the Lord-Lieutenant, it has already been noticed.

BUILDINGS. The buildings of the city, before the arrival of Henry II. in 1172, were of very inferior order, the better fort being constructed of wattles spread over with clay, and covered with straw or thatch; the inferior of mud or clay, with straw mixed to hold it together. A large hall, erected by order of that monarch, of smoothed wattles, united with more than common skill, had so splendid an appearance, in the eyes of the rude natives, that they styled it a royal palace. The establishment of English colonies gradually produced considerable change for the better in the construction of the buildings; and was attended by an increase of commerce, and an introduction of wealth and refinement. The buildings were now formed of timber, and covered with tiles, slates, or shingles. Some such edifices, built in the time of Elizabeth, were standing until late in the eighteenth century. The most ancient of the cage-work

work houses, last subsisting, was in Skinner-row, near the Tholsel; it was called the *Carbrie*, and belonged to the Earl of Kildare. In the time of James I. the city was greatly improved, both within and without the walls; houses were built of brick and stone, and the city much extended. In 1610, as appears by a map of Dublin, then published by a Mr. Speed, the river was not embanked on the north side of the city, and only a small portion on the south. The ground now distinguished by the names of the Upper and Lower Ormond Quays, the Bachelor's Walk, the Inns Quay, and Arran Quay, comprising in the whole an extent of upwards of a mile, was then covered with ooze, and overflowed with the tides; excepting a small portion about the King's Inns, where had been a monastery of Dominican friars. Mary's Abbey was then the extremity of the town to the north: Ostmantown, Grange-gorman, Stoney-batter, Glasnemenoge, and Drumcondra, were then villages at some distance from town. On the south of the river also, in 1610, from Newman's tower, where Essex-bridge stands, down to the extremity of the south wall, the ground, now embanked to Ring's end, was under the dominion of the sea, and covered with ooze and filth. The buildings, public and private, which have since been erected, have advanced it to the rank of one of the first capitals in Europe; and even in late years public spirit and individual enterprise have added to it some of its most conspicuous ornaments. Among these may be reckoned the Custom-house, the Four Courts, the New Rooms, the Rotunda, the Lying-in hospital, and the forming of its garden into Rutland-square; the constructing of the Circus and Mountjoy-square, the continuing of Sackville-street to the river, erecting Carlisle-bridge; and, south of the Liffey, the magnificent additions at the eastern and western extremes of the Parliament-house, Daly's Club-house, the opening of Dame-street, the elegant new structures within the College, completion of Merrion-square, which, with the docks and canals, altogether strike with admiration at so vast a display of utility, taste, and spirit.

THE BAY. The bay of Dublin is nearly circular, about six miles in diameter, communicating directly into the harbour. The opening between the hills of Dalkey and Howth is extremely grand: to the north, after passing the bold promontory of Howth, the flat but rich appearance of the lands of Clontarf, with its pleasing villages; and to the south, the bold presentment of the shores of Dalkey, Bullock, Dunleary, and the Black Rock, with the eminent appearance of the villages and white villas, form grand and picturesque scenes, to which the Wicklow hills and the mountains, from their forms called

the Sugar-loaves, do not a little contribute, appearing not unlike extinguished volcanoes. The light-house is situated at the extremity of an extensive mole, which projects three miles into the bay. The mole is twenty-five feet broad, and five feet above high water; it is all of hewn stone, well cramped together; and was constructed to deepen the harbour, much injured by two immense banks of sand to the north and south of the channel, called the Bulls. Immediately above the light-house is another disadvantage to the harbour of Dublin; a large bank of sand, called the Bar, lies directly across the entrance, preventing vessels of burthen from entering but at or about high water.

DOCKS AND CANALS. The docks and canals, that present themselves on entering the river, are well worthy of notice. The *Grand Canal Harbour*, on the south side, is a stupendous undertaking. The *Custom-house Dock* is also a noble receptacle for shipping, and cannot fail of proving highly important to commerce. The canals that completely surround three parts of Dublin are of very general utility, both as to inland and foreign commerce.

ROAD. The circular road surrounding the city affords most delightful views of the town and country, rendered highly picturesque by repeated prospects of the Wicklow mountains, the bay, and those bold features which form its shores, the hills of Dalkey and Howth, enlivened by the view of vessels under sail.

PROVISIONS. Dublin is plentifully supplied with excellent provisions of all kinds. Although there are collieries in the kingdom, very little native fuel, excepting turf, is consumed; coal is supplied from England and Scotland. Fresh water is abundantly obtained, and collected in a large reservoir, situated in the south-western quarter of the city, called the city basin.

CHURCHES AND PLACES OF WORSHIP. Dublin has two cathedrals, Christ Church and St. Patrick's; and eighteen parish churches, dedicated to St. Paul, St. Michan, St. Mary, St. Thomas, St. Mark, St. Andrew, St. Ann, St. Peter, St. Bridget, St. Werburgh, St. John, St. Michael, St. Nicholas (within), St. Nicholas (without), St. Audeon, St. Catharine, St. James, and St. Luke. There are also eight chapels of ease, fifteen Roman Catholic chapels, six meeting-houses for Presbyterians, one for Anabaptists, four for Methodists, two for Quakers, one Jewish synagogue, a church for French Calvinists, a Danish and a Dutch church.

ST. PATRICK'S CHURCH. The cathedral of St. Patrick is the earliest and most extensive structure raised for the celebration

bration of Christian worship in Ireland ; but it is built in a hollow, which occasions the whole church, with the surrounding close and contiguous streets, at the times of heavy rains, to be under water even to the depth of seven feet or more ; and the adjacent buildings are singularly mean and dirty. It is not in a rich style of Gothic architecture ; yet is, on the whole, a large and respectable pile of building. The form is that of a cross, placed as usual east and west, in which direction it is 230 feet long, exclusive of a chapel attached to it at the east end, with which it is near 300 feet long, and 150 broad from the north to the south arm of the cross. It has but one principal aisle, with small side aisles, occupying the whole west part of the cross, and is, from the west entrance to the choir door, 130 feet long, 75 broad, and 77 high : down the sides of the great aisle are eight Gothic arches, on octagonal arched piers, which support a timber roof, slated. The whole aisle is remarkably destitute of any ornament but a few good monuments. The head of the cross is wholly taken up with the choir, which is furnished in the usual style of cathedrals, with richly ornamented Gothic stalls for the prebendaries. There is a handsome communion-table, on either side of which, against the walls, are curious old monuments. The parish church of *Saint Nicholas*, which once formed the north arm of the cross, was in the same style of architecture with the main building, but is now entirely in ruins. The chapter-room makes the opposite or south arm ; it has a very inferior appearance, being but a plain apartment, with naked walls. The chapel, at the east end of the cathedral, was originally dedicated to the Blessed Virgin ; but has of late been set apart to the use of French Protestants, who exercise divine service in it according to the rites established in the church of Ireland. The tower is at the north-west corner of the cathedral : it is a square of 38 feet, and 125 feet high : on the top is a plain octagonal spire of stone, rising fifty feet to the point. The cathedral was erected about the year 1190 ; the chapel of the Blessed Virgin some little time before the year 1271 ; the tower in 1370, and the spire in 1750.

OTHER CHURCHES. There are no other churches worthy of notice ; St. Thomas's, in Marlborough-street, and St. Catharine's, in Thomas-street, are the most considerable.

COMMERCIAL AND MUNICIPAL EDIFICES.

THE THOLSEL. The Tholsel, or Toll Stall, as anciently called, from its being the place where toll-gatherers attended to receive the toll or custom of such goods as were liable to city impost, cannot at this time be considered as an elegant object, or even of much ornament to the city. It was erected in 1683. Its ornaments are in a singular, but bold and masterly style; and there are statues of Charles II. and James II. very good, and in perfect preservation. The Tholsel is situated west of the castle, in a narrow street of trade, called Skinner-row, immediately at the entrance of a very ancient commercial street, called High-street. Its form is nearly a square, sixty-two feet in front, by sixty-eight in depth; within is a spacious open hall, with four robust pillars, similar to other two without, which support the floor of the upper story. At the far side of the hall, on the left, is the recorder's court, where the quarter sessions are held, and where criminals are tried, those indicted for treason and murder excepted. Here is also held what is termed the Monday court, for the trial of civil actions to any amount; and in the same place, by an act called the civil bill act, all debts not exceeding twenty pounds, nor less than forty shillings, are determined before the recorder, at a trifling expence: this court is held twice a-year. On the floor above are several stately apartments, decorated in the old heavy style, adorned with some paintings of the mayors of the city and of some kings and queens of England. In the west front is the Guildhall, or council-room for the merchants; another, the largest and richest, is on the east side, where are held the city feasts. At the lower end of this room is a handsome apartment for the grand jury to meet in: there are besides several lesser chambers, where the city records, &c. are deposited. Under the hall are a spacious kitchen, and other convenient apartments. In the hall of the Tholsel are elected the members who represent the city in parliament. Adjoining the Tholsel is the Crown-office, and Court of Conscience or Requests.

ROYAL EXCHANGE. The Royal Exchange is one of the principal ornaments of the city, from the combined advantages of an excellent situation, beautiful form, and fine display of architectural elegance; it is nearly in the centre of Dublin, on the south side of the Liffey, opposite a spacious trading street, called Parliament-street; commanding a prospect of great length over Essex-bridge, to the end of Capel-street; the most populous line of communication from the north to the south side of the town; now almost equally divided by the Liffey. The appearance of the Exchange in the approach from Capel-street

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is particularly striking; built on nearly the highest ground of the city, called Cork-hill; it is exposed to sight with considerable advantage, and terminates the view with an object at once grand, cheerful, and elegant. The form of the Exchange is a square, of little more than one hundred feet; with a handsome dome on the centre, fifty-five feet diameter. Three fronts are exposed to view, richly decorated in the Corinthian taste; the two principal, the north and west, have each a fine portico, of pillars thirty-seven feet high. The east front is in a narrow passage, called Exchange-alley, and ornamented with pilasters only. The whole of this building, within as well as without, is built of Portland stone.

On entering this edifice, the attention is immediately called to many conspicuous beauties; but above all, to the general form. Twelve fluted pillars of the composite order, thirty-two feet high, are circularly disposed in the centre of a square area covered by an highly enriched entablature; above which is a beautiful cylindrical lantern, about ten feet high, perforated by twelve circular windows, ornamented with festoons of laurel leaves; the whole crowned with a handsome spherical dome, divided into hexagonal compartments, enriched and well proportioned; and lighted from the centre by a large circular skylight. On each side the twelve columns, which support the dome, are impost pilasters of the Ionic order, the same as those which appear on the outside of the building, covered with a flute frieze and enriched cornice. The side walks of the square are covered with a flat ceiling, the height of the impost pilasters, with enriched soffits from the pilasters in the centre, to others opposite them against the wall. At each end, within, of the north front, is a handsome oval stone staircase, lighted by oval lanterns, in highly enriched coved ceilings, by which is access to the coffee and other rooms, disposed around the cylinder of the dome, over the ambulatory below. To the north front is the coffee-room, which is an excellent apartment, extending from one staircase to the other, lighted by three windows, between the pillars of the portico, and by two oval lanterns, in a coved ceiling, richly ornamented in stucco, on coloured grounds. In the west is a large room for the merchants to deposit samples of their ware, called the brokers' office, but used as a sitting-room for the commissioners of bankrupts. To the south are the apartments of the housekeeper. On the east is the merchants' committee-room, with a convenient anti-chamber. Opposite the north entrance, between two of the pillars which support the dome, is an excellent statue of King George III. in a Roman military habit, placed on a white marble pedestal cast in bronze, by J. Van Nost, presented by the Earl of Northumberland,

berland, when Lord Lieutenant. Although the Earl was warm and active to forward this undertaking, he had not the honour of laying the foundation-stone, which was done with great ceremony by his successor, George Lord Viscount Townsend, in the second year of his administration, 1769, five years after the grant for the purchase of the site, and it was opened in 1779. The Exchange is founded on a rock, which extends along Parliament street under Essex-bridge, to Liffey-street, on the north side of the river, and well known by the name of *Stand fast Dick*.

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE. The Custom-house is situated on the south side of the river, more than half a mile east from Essex-bridge, on a nearly flat ground, with a convenient broad quay before it, about three feet above high water mark; it is a full mile within the harbour, and by its beauty and magnificence conveys very exalted ideas of Dublin to those who approach from the bay.

The whole building is insulated, exhibiting four decorated fronts, answering almost to the cardinal points of the compass. The form is an oblong quadrangle, three hundred and seventy-five feet long, by two hundred and five feet deep. Within are two courts, east and west, divided from each other by the centre pile, which, one hundred and thirty-one feet broad, extends the whole depth, from north to south. It is jointly the house of customs and excise; and, besides all the offices appropriated to the business of the revenue, contains apartments or dwelling-houses for the chief commissioners. The north and south are the principal fronts; the east and west, excepting only the returns of the wings at the extremities, are large warehouses. The whole is decorated with columns and ornaments, of the Doric order, with some innovations in a bold style. Over the portico in the centre is a handsome cupola, on exactly the same plan as those at Greenwich-hospital, but of somewhat less dimensions, and differing a little in the decorations of the elevation: the dome, twenty-six feet diameter, is quite plain, covered with copper; on the top of which, on a circular pedestal, is a statue of Hope resting on her anchor, twelve feet high, and one hundred and thirteen feet from the ground. On the attic story, and in other parts, are statues and other ornaments in sculpture.

The north front differs considerably from the south; it has a portico of four columns in the centre, but no pediment. On the entablature over each column are statues representing Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; it has neither arcades nor recessed columns, on each side the centre, as the south; the wings only are the same; nor is the general effect at all comparable

parable with the south. The centre piles in the east and west fronts, which are alike, are each nearly one hundred feet in extent, with open arcades below, of seven arches, joining them: to the wings, are arches which give entrance to the courts. Although there is no great display of ornament in these fronts, yet from the boldness of the parts, and the arcades in the middle, they have a very good effect. The courts are plain and convenient, the whole of them, with great part of the north, and both the east and west fronts, are built of native mountain stone; but the whole of the south front, and all the decorative parts of the three others, are of Portland stone.

The long room, in the way to which is a beautiful octagonal vestibule under the cupola, is a spacious superb apartment, seventy feet square; down each side is a range of composite columns, about twelve feet from the walls, supporting an arched ceiling, in which are two large circular lanterns, richly ornamented with devices in stucco; which, with semicircular windows above the entablature, over the columns, pleasingly illuminate the room; between the columns are desks for the officers and clerks. The trial and board rooms, situated on the north front, are also very handsome apartments; and the staircase leading to them is much admired for its light appearance and ingenious construction.

THE PARLIAMENT HOUSE. Although Ireland has not, since the Union, had a separate legislature, yet the building in which the senate was used to sit will always be contemplated with respect. It may be termed the noblest structure Dublin has to boast; and it is no hyperbole to advance, that this edifice, in the entire, is the grandest, most convenient, and most extensive of the kind, in Europe. The portico is without any of the usual architectural decorations, having neither statue, vase, bas-relief, tablet, sculptured key-stone, or sunk pannel, to enrich it; it derives all its beauty from a simple effect of fine art. This noble structure is situated on College-green, and is placed nearly at right angles with the west front of the college. The inside corresponds with the majesty of its external appearance. The middle door, under the portico, leads directly into the Commons' House, passing through a great hall, called the Court of Requests, where the people were used to assemble during the sittings of parliament. The Commons' room is circular, 55 feet in diameter, inscribed in a square. The seats are disposed around the centre in concentric circles, one rising above another. About fifteen feet above the level of the floor, on a cylindrical basement, are disposed sixteen Corinthian columns, supporting a rich hemispherical

spherical dome, which crowns the whole. A narrow gallery, for the public, about five feet broad, with very convenient seats, is fitted up, with a ballustrade in front between the pillars. Around the Commons' room is a beautiful corridore which communicates by three doors into the house, and to the committee rooms, clerks' offices, coffee rooms, &c.

The *House of Lords* is situated to the right of the Commons, and is also a noble apartment; the body is forty feet long, by thirty wide, in addition to which, at the upper end, is a circular recess 13 feet deep, like a large niche, wherein the throne was placed, under a rich canopy of crimson velvet; and at the lower end is the bar, 20 feet square. The room is ornamented, at each end, with Corinthian columns, with niches between. The entablature of the order goes round the room, which is covered with a rich trunk cieling. On the two long sides of the room are large pieces of tapestry, now rather decayed; one representing the famous battle of the Boyne, and the other, that of Aughrim; they were executed by a Dutch artist, and are esteemed very fine.

The Parliament-house was begun during the administration of John Lord Carteret, in 1729, and was executed under the inspection of Sir Edward Lovet Pearce, engineer and surveyor-general; but completed by Arthur Dobbs, Esq. who succeeded him in that office, about the year 1739, the expence amounting to nearly 40,000*l*.

The entrance of the House of Lords having for a considerable time been considered inconvenient, it was determined to give it a distinct access, with some additional rooms. Accordingly, in 1785, a noble portico, of six Corinthian columns, three feet six inches in diameter, covered by a handsome pediment, now forms the entrance to the House of Peers. The entablature of the old portico is continued around to the new; but the column of the one is of the Ionic, and that of the other of the Corinthian order; an astonishing incongruity.

The Commons' House was also improved, from designs by Mr. Robert Parke, architect, between August 1787, and October 1794; the external additions render the western side of the building nearly equal to the east; and the inside of this addition comprises many conveniences, particularly a suite of committee-rooms, apartments for the housekeeper, serjeant at arms, &c., and a large hall for chairmen to wait in. On February 27. 1792, while the House were sitting, a fire broke out, which consumed the Commons' House; but it was rebuilt on nearly its former construction.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

THE charitable establishments in the capital of Ireland are here detailed in the order observed by Lieut. Archer in his Statistical Survey of the County.

DUBLIN GENERAL DISPENSARY. This institution is held at No. 28. Temple-Bar, and formed on the model of the dispensaries in London.

HOSPITAL FOR INCURABLES. This was founded by the Musical Society, who disposed of the produce of their annual subscription, at the close of each year, to such charitable purposes as the exigencies of the times required. In 1744, they thought proper to apply their fund entirely to the relief of such incurables as were disgusting or offensive to the sight, and founded an Hospital. The undertaking met with deserved encouragement, and they were enabled to accommodate twenty-eight persons, which was all their house could at that time contain; but the evident utility of the scheme procured for it such liberal support, that a large edifice has been provided, near Donnybrook road, for the reception of a much greater number of patients.

MERCER'S HOSPITAL. In 1734, Mrs. Mary Mercer gave a large house, at the end of Stephen-street, for an hospital for the reception of sick poor, and appointed governors and directors. The ground, being glebe, was given by Dr. Whittingham, then Archdeacon of Dublin. At the same time, the city of Dublin gave 50*l.* toward fitting up the house; and soon after, several contributions were made in aid of the undertaking. But the chief support of this useful institution has been the benefit arising yearly from a musical performance at St. Andrew's Church. The governors were incorporated by act of parliament in 1750, and enabled to recover legacies, receive donations, and purchase lands.

CHARITABLE INFIRMARY. This institution, situate in Jervis-street, and opened August 12. 1798, was the first established in Dublin for the reception of sick and wounded poor, who are maintained, and supplied with all necessaries, and attended by physicians and surgeons, who also distribute medicines to such as cannot be received in the house. There are twenty trustees chosen annually, who meet the first Friday of each month.

CHARITABLE LOAN. The governors of the Charitable Musical Society (incorporated by act of parliament) for lending out money, interest free, to indigent tradesmen, meet at St. Anne's vestry-room, every Thursday at noon, to receive applications.

cations. To persons well recommended money is lent, in sums not less than 2*l.* nor more than 5*l.* at one time, for which the borrower must give a note, with two approved sureties, payable in such manner as the governors shall appoint: during the drawing of the lottery they were used to decline lending.

THE MAGDALEN. This asylum is like that of the same name in London; it is situated in Leeson-street, was founded by Lady Arabella Denny, and opened June 11. 1766.

BETHESDA; LOCK PENITENTIARY; AND WORKHOUSE. These charities are situated in Dorset-street. The object of the Lock Hospital is like that of the foundation of the same name in London, and the others are for the reception and employment of those who have received its benefits.

HOUSE OF INDUSTRY. The House of Industry in Channel-row was partly founded for receiving such as were, by age, sickness, or misfortune, rendered incapable of earning their bread, and for relieving the city from the clamours and importunities of sturdy beggars. An act of parliament was passed in 1773, and a grant made of 4,000*l.* to carry this design into effect; and it is since supported by subscriptions, benefactions, grants from parliament, and parochial collections. Poor persons of every description and age are admitted into this house, lodged, fed, but not clothed; for many having gone into the house merely to obtain garments, which they soon disposed of for spirituous liquors, they are now obliged to supply themselves, by their own earnings, from shops kept for that purpose within the walls of the institution. The average number of poor annually maintained in this house is 1718; those who are able to work are employed, and allowed eight-pence in the shilling, with which they may buy additional articles of food, &c. from a shop in the house. The modes of employment are spinning, knitting, shoe-making by women, callico-weaving, carpentry, turning, making hair-combs, making clothes. The instructors in hosiery and callico-weaving receive no salaries, but one-third of the earnings of the children. The establishment of soup-kitchens, in 1801, for the relief of the poor, branched out from this institution, and proved the means of saving the lives of thousands. The distribution of rice, by government, was also an effectual relief.

THE LYING-IN HOSPITAL. The Lying-in Hospital was founded by Dr. Bartholomew Mosse, surgeon and licentiate in midwifery, who furnished a large house in George's lane with beds and other necessaries, and opened it for the relief of pregnant poor women, in March, 1745: he prosecuted his plan, at his own expence, until the evident utility of the institution induced several to encourage so laudable an undertaking. It is
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remarkable, that this was the first institution of its kind in the British dominions. In 1747, application was made to Dr. Mosse, by persons in London, for a copy of his plan and regulations, which he transmitted, and the year following, a like hospital was established in Brownlow-street, London. The number of patients making application for admission, induced Dr. Mosse to extend his views: he took ground in Britain-street, and, at the risk of his whole fortune, finished the gardens at the rear of the Hospital, as a place of public resort, applying the profits to the purpose of his intended plan. He laid the foundation-stone of the present structure, called the Rotunda, on May 24. 1751, old style. By the expenditure of his whole fortune and some aids, which produced 8,000*l.*, and by grants from parliament to the amount of 12,000*l.* more, the building was completed; 2,000*l.* were farther granted by parliament for the Doctor's use, as a reward for his philanthropy and spirited beneficence. A charter was obtained in 1756, incorporating several noblemen and gentlemen guardians and managers, and appointing Dr. Mosse master for life. It was opened on December 8. 1757, by His Grace the Duke of Bedford, then Lord-Lieutenant, when fifty-two women advanced in pregnancy were admitted. Dr. Mosse did not long enjoy the satisfaction resulting from the attainment of his wishes, and the termination of his indefatigable labours: he died February 16. 1759, in the 47th year of his age. By his will he made over the hospital to James, Earl of Kildare, and to Lord Viscount Ludley. The Hospital gardens, for their size, are beautiful in an eminent degree, and contain an astonishing variety. The Rotunda garden was originally inclosed by a high wall, which was taken down in 1784, and a handsome iron-railing, on a dwarf wall, with lamps thickly placed, put in its stead: this was done in the administration of Charles, Duke of Rutland, and called, after him, Rutland-square.

This Hospital is a principal ornament of the north-western quarter of the city. It stands in a cheerful situation on the north side of Great Britain-street, about a third of an Irish mile from the river; from whence, to nearly opposite the Hospital, extends the noblest street in Dublin, called Sackville-street: this avenue is 150 feet broad, very well built, and inhabited by persons of the first rank and opulence. The architecture of the Hospital has ever been much admired: the curved colonnades in the south front have no communication to detached buildings, but were constructed merely for effect, and to gain a court-yard in front: the rear of the Hospital, to the garden, is in a plainer style, but elegant. The bulk of the building is 125 feet in front, and 82 feet in depth, and is faced with an
excellent

excellent native stone, both front and rear. The interior of the edifice claims acknowledgement for convenience and neatness only. There are seven wards, containing in the whole seventy beds; with apartments for the chief physician, two assistants, apothecary, matron, midwife, housekeeper, nurses, and chaplain. The chapel occupies the middle of the front, on the second story; in the ceiling of which are some very fine bold examples of figures and ornaments in alto relievo, executed in stucco. Under the chapel is a spacious hall. A master of this Hospital is elected by the governors, sixty in number, every seven years. The Hospital is supported by entertainments in public rooms adjoining; by contributions in the chapel; by private benefactions, and by yearly subscriptions of 12*l.* 10*s.* for each bed.

THE ROTUNDA. Although the Rotunda is merely a place of fashionable amusement, it is so inseparably connected with the Lying-in Hospital, that it is most proper to notice it in this place. The Rotunda and New Rooms adjoining now form a very distinguishing feature in the city. This noble circular room was built in the year 1757, for a place of public entertainment. In 1785, an elegant suite of additional rooms was begun, and the Rotunda itself was much beautified in its external appearance. The foundation-stone of the New Rooms was laid by the Duke of Rutland, July 17. 1785. The tympan of the pediment in the centre is adorned with his arms, encircled by the collar of the Garter, and other ornaments. The New Rooms form a range of 101 feet in extent, parallel with Cavendish-row, the east side of the square. The inside of the Rotunda has a very pleasing appearance: it is 80 feet in diameter, and 40 in height, and without any middle support. It is decorated around with 18 Corinthian pilasters, 25 feet high, standing on pedestals; above which, between the pilasters, are enriched windows, which appear on the outside: the ceiling is flat, with large and bold compartments: the ornaments of the whole are now somewhat antiquated, but it has nevertheless a grand effect on public nights, when illumined, and filled with the native beauty and fashion of the country. The orchestra projects into the room, and is generally filled with the best musical abilities the city can afford: the effect of sound is good.

The new rooms are superb: they consist of two principal apartments, one over the other, 86 feet long, by 40 broad: the lower is the ball, the upper is the tea and supper-room. There is a smaller ball-room on the ground floor, 60 feet by 24, which also serves as a room for refreshments when the larger is occupied. The upper room is very elegantly enriched: be-
tween

tween pilasters against the walls are trophies, where shields of cut glass, and other glittering ornaments, have a very brilliant appearance: there are several lesser rooms for cards and refreshments. All the receipts, after defraying the incidental expences, go to the support of the Hospital.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL. This charity was founded in 1704, but by an act of parliament, passed in 1728, the old corporation was dissolved, and a new one erected, comprising governors of rank and fortune, together with the lord mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and clergy of the city for the time being. Fifteen or more of these are annually chosen, the first Monday after the 24th June, to be acting governors. By this act they were to receive common beggars, and children of all denominations, above six years old, for which a fund was granted to the governors, arising from an estate of 113*l.* 2*s.* per annum, from a tax on all carriages plying for hire within the city of Dublin and its liberties, and from a tax of three-pence in the pound on houses. By another act, from March 25. 1730, the governors were to receive into the house all exposed and deserted children of either sex; and, for further aid, an additional tax of three-pence in the pound was laid on houses. The younger children are suckled by nurses maintained in the house until proper nurses in the country, with proper certificates, can be provided, with whom they remain till they are six years old. When removed to town, they are instructed in reading, writing, and the principles of the Protestant religion, and afterwards sent to the spinning or some other school, until they are put apprentices.

ORPHAN HOUSES FOR GIRLS AND FOR BOYS. The first of these institutions was opened in 1791, the latter in 1793: they are supported by voluntary contributions: the children are maintained, educated, and apprenticed.

MASONIC FEMALE ORPHANS' SCHOOL. In May 1797, this institution was founded for relief of the destitute female children of free-masons, and by the help of voluntary subscriptions, the encouragement of the grand lodge, and an annual charity sermon, the committee have been enabled to take premises in Gordon's Lane, Charlemont-street, and to maintain and educate a great number.

PATRICIANS. These are a large and useful body of men, who contribute toward maintaining a number of orphans. Any person may belong to this society, on paying an annual sum of six British shillings.

STRANGERS' FRIENDS' SOCIETY. This institution was formed in 1790. No recommendation is required, but evident distress. On receiving notice, from whatever quarter, of persons known,

or suspected to be in distress, a visitor is appointed, who comes at an unexpected time; and if the distress is found to be real, relief is afforded and continued.

REDUCED LITERARY TEACHERS. This society is for the support of the widows and orphans of its members, and is rather a benefit society than one for charitable purposes.

SOCIETY FOR RELIEF OF SICK LODGERS. The nature of this institution is explained in its name. It began in 1790.

The following charities require only to be named to shew their nature and utility.

FEVER HOSPITAL,—Smithfield; established in 1801.

DISPENSARY FOR THE INFANT POOR. Opened March 25. 1800, in Exchequer-street.

CHARITABLE DISPENSARY. Opened in November 1794, in Meath-street. There is also a *Dispensary* for the parishes of St. Mary, St. Thomas, and St. George, held in Denmark-street, which was the first of the kind established in Dublin.

COUNTY OF DUBLIN, OR MEATH HOSPITAL,—is situated on the Upper Coombe; it was appointed the infirmary for the county of Dublin, by act of parliament, in 1774. It was first instituted for the relief of poor manufacturers in the Earl of Meath's Liberty. It is supported by private subscriptions.

SIMPSON'S HOSPITAL, *Great Britain-street.* This Hospital was incorporated by act of parliament, in March 1780, and opened in November 1781, for the reception of poor, decayed, blind, and gouty men; the annual income is 2,500*l.*, and it constantly supports 36 gouty, and 36 blind men, who are comfortably clothed, dieted, and lodged.

SWIFT'S HOSPITAL, OR ST. PATRICK'S HOSPITAL FOR LUNATICS AND IDEOTS. This charity was founded in 1745, by Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, and incorporated by charter August 6. 1746. The Dean bequeathed 11,000*l.* for this hospital. The trustees purchased an estate of 400*l.* per annum, and the fund has been since considerably augmented by legacies, but it is not sufficient for more than 38 lunatics and ideots, and 12 more patients received as boarders, for the sum of thirty guineas each. The men and women are kept apart from each other, by a division in the building.

STEPHENS' HOSPITAL, *Stephens'-lane, James street.* In 1710, Dr. Stephens, an eminent physician, bequeathed 600*l.* a-year to his sister for life; and after her decease, to trustees, for erecting and endowing an hospital, for the relief and maintenance of curable poor persons. Mrs. Stephens, in 1720, began to build on a more extensive plan than the fund would support, but, by the assistance of benefactions, was enabled to complete two-thirds of the building, and furnish accommodations for 40 patients

patients in 1724. An act of parliament was obtained in 1729, appointing 23 governors, and their successors, with power to purchase lands to the amount of 2,000*l.* a-year, and to have a common seal. A third of the hospital remaining unfinished, the governors opened a subscription, which brought in 1,400*l.*, and as Mrs. Stephens continued to pay 450*l.* per annum, the building was soon completed, and rendered capable of containing 300 patients. They support in the hospital, constantly, 70 poor decayed housekeepers, tradesmen, servants of both sexes, and poor labourers, besides externs, who attend for advice and medicine.

NICHOLAS'S HOSPITAL, *Francis-street*, united with that of ST. CATHARINE'S. This establishment was opened April 1. 1753, and is capable of receiving 40 internal surgical patients.

WESTMORELAND LOCK HOSPITAL, *Townsend-street*,—was opened for the indiscriminate admission of all indigent persons, on November 20. 1792. An establishment has been lately added for relief of ruptured poor.

OUZEL GALLEY. The design of this respectable foundation, is to determine commercial differences by arbitration, superseding the necessity of going to law, or litigating matters that are of little moment. This useful society applies the costs, that are decreed against the parties, to charitable purposes.

RATHFARNHAM SICK POOR DISPENSARY,—established on March 25. 1801, for relief of the sick in the neighbourhood of Rathfarnham. Any labourer, losing his work by sickness, has medical relief, and is allowed three shillings per week during his illness or incapacity to work. There is another charitable institution, supported with great spirit by the gentlemen of this neighbourhood, which is that of distributing wheat-meal, oat-meal, herrings, and other provisions to the poor, considerably under the market price.

CONFINED DEBTORS. ——— Powell, Esq. has vested 800*l.* in the lord mayor and aldermen's hands, from the interest of which a benefaction of a twelpenny loaf, a piece of beef, some fuel, and 1*s.* 1*d.* in cash, are given on Christmas-eve to each confined debtor.

BRIDGES. There are six bridges over the Liffey; namely, Effex, Ormond, Old Bridge, Bloody Bridge, Allen, otherwise called Queen's Bridge, and Carlisle Bridge. Of these the first is entitled to a particular description as one of the ornaments of the city.

ESSEX BRIDGE. Effex Bridge was first built in 1676, by Mr. Humphrey Jervis, during the administration of Arthur Earl of Essex, whose name it bears; but being greatly decayed, an elegant structure was undertaken in 1753, upon the model

of Westminster Bridge, and completed in 1755, at an expence of 20,661*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* Between the land abutments, Effex Bridge is 250 feet long, and 51 feet broad ; being seven feet wider than Westminster Bridge, which is only 44 feet broad, although more than four times the length of the other. Effex Bridge consists of five semicircular arches, the centre and widest of which is 48 feet span. It is of very easy ascent, and confessedly a master-piece of workmanship.

PLACES OF AMUSEMENT. In these Dublin does not abound. The Rotunda has already been mentioned, from its connexion with the Lying-in Hospital.

THE THEATRE. Nothing in the appearance of the Theatre intitles it to particular notice : it is of moderate size, and rather humbly than splendidly decorated. It has served as a nursery for much of the talent which has been most successfully displayed in London, and sometimes as a retreat for those whom caprice had removed from the height of public favour, or whom age or infirmity had rendered desirous of more ease than a London engagement affords.

STREETS AND SQUARES. The improvement of the city in recent times has at least kept pace with, if it has not outstripped, that of any other city or town in the British dominions. The improvement of Sackville-street and Dame-street, the building of Merrion-square, and many other grand and beautiful undertakings of the same kind, shew at once the unextinguished spirit and the increasing prosperity of the people.

ST. STEPHEN'S GREEN. The spacious area, called Saint Stephen's Green, is esteemed the largest square in any city in Europe : the circumference, by the houses, has been most commonly estimated an English mile, but is somewhat about two hundred yards short of that measurement. The houses around, are mostly in the modern plain taste of building, and of brick ; some are large dwellings, with high flights of steps to the doors, which give them a respectable, if not a grand appearance. Inclosed by a low wall, from a carriage-way around, is a broad gravel-walk, which encompasses the Green, from which it is divided by a fosse. On each side of the walks are lime-trees, which, when in leaf, diffuse an effect and cheerfulness, which without them the square could not impart. In the centre of the Green is an equestrian statue of George II. in a Roman military habit, cast in brass by Van Nost, and erected in 1758.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO IRELAND.

EACH coast of Ireland furnishes a number of detached islands.

EASTERN.

EASTERN. Beginning with the east from the bay of Carrickfergus, the first are,

The Coplands. These two islands are named after a family which formerly flourished in Ulidia.

Borry. The next is the Isle of Borry; and there are on that side no others worth observing in coasting toward the shore of Dublin; for those of Loughlane, and one or two small ones in the haven of Carlingford, and some other mere rocks dispersed in the sea, are too inconsiderable to be noticed.

Holm Patrick, or the Isle of St. Patrick, lies on the coast of Dublin; it is so called, at least traditionally, in memory of that saint's landing there in 432, from whence he passed over to the Continent, to plant Christianity there.

Skerres. The rocky islands, called the *Skerres*, are next to these; and on the same coast is *Lambey*, called *Limnas* by Pliny; and by Ptolemy, *Limni*; where, as tradition goes, St. Nessan was frequent in watching, fasting, and praying.

Dalkey. Dalkey lies three miles southerly from hence, called by some St. Bennet's Island; from whence coasting along the shore, by the lands, called the North, Middle, and South Grounds, seamen come to *Legeri*, or the little island belonging to the county of Wexford, perhaps the same as the *Edros* of Pliny. Next to these are those called the *Saltes Islands*, which are thought likewise to belong to this county.

SOUTHERN ISLANDS. Proceeding now to the south-east and southern coasts, the first little island is that called *Capel*, three or four miles distant from the port of Youghal. More to the south are *Cotten Island*, *Deston*, *Dacollon*, *Cray*, and *Doubin*; with others of less note.

More to the west appears the island called by seamen *Cape Clare*, where St. Kieran the elder was born; and lower in the Bay of Baltimore are many other islands, among which are *Inishstircan* and *Inishkircan*, *Angbra*, the long island, the isle called the *Horse*, and lower in the Bay of Bantry the Isle of *Whiddy*.

WESTERN ISLANDS. On the south-west, at some distance in the main, appear three islands, the greatest, called the *Cow*, the second the *Bull*, the third the *Calf*. In the mouth of the river Kilmar, are also some small islands; and pearls are found in the shells of this river, and on the neighbouring coast.

Skeleges. In the Main are also the three *Skeleges*, being rocky islands; in one of which was an Abbey, dedicated to St. Michael, but afterwards translated to the continent.

Valentia. Next to these is the Island of *Valentia*, or *Dariry*, which for some miles over against the shore of Kerry, is divided with a small frith from the continent.

Blaskets. More to the north lie the *Blaskets*, with the adjacent

jacent rocks; *Inis Cutte*, or *Inis Cathaig*, are within the mouth of the river Shannon, and were an episcopal see.

Isles of Arran. The three islands of Arran lie at the entrance of the Bay of Galway, the biggest is called *Killenoy*, the next *Kitronon*, and the third *Shere*; but others distinguish them by the names of *Iniscer*, *Inismane*, and *Arranmore*: the last is the chief of them, signifying *Great Arran*, and called likewise *Amnan-emb*, or *Aran* of the Saints, from the sepulchre of the saints buried there. In 1661, these isles gave title to an earl, in the person of Richard, second son to James, Duke of Ormond; but he dying without issue male, the honour was revived by William III., and conferred on Charles Butler, brother to the late Duke, in 1693.

There are many little islands between Arran and the continent; but more to the north: among others, are *Ardillan*, *Ilanenvraber*, *Inisbarke*, the Island of *Coines*, and *Inis-be-find*, that is, the island of *White Heifer*, where great heaps of amber-grease are sometimes found. On the same coast appear *Inis-turk* and *Cerey*, between these and the continent lie many little islands in the Bay of *Barisol*, next the two *Achils*, or *Akils*, the greater and the less; and that rock, so well known to seamen, called the Black Rock, and then *Inisker* and *Davilan*.

NORTHERN ISLANDS. After some small islands which lie at the mouth of the river Erer, and the ports of Donegal and Calabar, are the isles called the *North Arrans*, to distinguish them from the other Arrans already mentioned; near to which lie the rocks which seamen call the *Stags*; next are *Cladagh* and *Torre*, more to the east, lying eight miles from the continent, and a pretty fertile soil.

Inis Oen. *Inis Oen*, or the Island of *Eugenius*, though called an island, is indeed a peninsula, and joined to the continent by an isthmus; the greatest ornament of which is Londonderry.

Strabal. The next are *Glossedy* and *Strabal*, or *Inis Strabal*, being rocky islands, frequented by tortoises that betake themselves thither to sleep and breed.

Ragblin. Next to these are the *Skerres*, and after them *Ragblin*, which is part of the county of Antrim, distant a league from the continent, and is called *Rionea* by Pliny; but the Irish historians call it *Rocarn*, or *Recrain*.

Nine Maids. Between that and the continent lie some small islands, and more southward nine rocky ones, called the *Nine Maids*, not far from the peninsula of *Magie*; and next to these are the *Coplands*, already noticed.

POLITICAL STATE

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

FOURTH GENERAL DIVISION.

SETTLEMENTS AND COLONIES.

UNDER this head it is purposed to give an account of the Dependencies of the British Crown in all parts of the World.

EUROPE.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

SITUATION. Man is an island in the Irish sea, distant from St. Bee's Head, in Cumberland, thirty nautical miles; from Burrow-head, in Scotland, sixteen; and from Strangford, in Ireland, twenty-seven miles; the latitude of the middle of the island being fifty-four degrees and sixteen minutes north. Its length rather exceeds thirty miles, and its breadth ten, at the greatest width; and running out to very narrow points at the extreme ends. The circumference is seventy miles, and the contents of the whole two hundred and twenty square miles; of which, the centre is wholly occupied by a range of heathy mountains, now partially exhibiting cultivated spots. This isle, although forming the centre of the British empire, and occupying a very conspicuous station in the neighbourhood of many powerful states, was yet so little known to or noticed by the ancients, that the natives account for its acknowledged obscurity in those early times, by ascribing its concealment to magical arts.

NAME. The name of Man is supposed by some to refer to its situation amidst surrounding kingdoms, from the Saxon

word "Mang," or "Among:" others believe it to be derived from Maune, the surname of St. Patrick; but the natives, who call it in their own language Manning, have a tradition that it was so designated from a prince, who is still the hero of their fables, called Mananan.

SETTLEMENT. This country has been in early times colonized by different states. According to tradition, the first possessors were the ancient Britons; but on the irruptions of the northern nations, the Isle of Man became subject to the Scots, who were expelled by one Cunedan, a Dane; for his ferocious courage surnamed the Dragon of the Isle. He, who is believed by the natives to be the founder and the legislator of their kingdom, is by them called Mananan Mac Lyr: they pretend that he was son to a king of Ulster, and brother to Fergus II. who restored the monarchical government in Scotland, in 422. The history of the island contains little that is worthy of notice. It was a separate dominion, although its sovereigns were subjects of England or of Scotland. After several vicissitudes it fell into the possession of Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, first the ally and afterwards the enemy of Henry IV., in consequence of whose rebellion, the island was seized to the king's use, by Sir William and Sir John Stanley. To Sir John the king made a grant for one year, in 1406, which was afterward revoked, and a new grant passed the great seal in 1407, bestowing the island, Castle Peel, and lordship of Man, and all the islands pertaining thereto, with all royalties, regalities, and franchises, on him and his heirs, in as full and ample a manner as had been granted to any former lord or king, to be held of the crown of Great Britain, per *homagium legium*, paying to the king a cast of falcons at his coronation. The sovereignty thus bestowed remained long in the family of Stanley. Sir Thomas, created first Lord Stanley, and afterward, for his great services to Henry VII. in Bosworth-field, Earl of Derby, was the third sovereign of this line. His grandson and immediate successor Thomas, resigned the title of king, hitherto borne by its sovereigns, choosing, as he states in a letter to his son, to be considered a great lord rather than a petty king. In 1651, when the loyal and gallant James, commonly called the great Earl of Derby, was taken prisoner by the rebels, and himself executed as a traitor, the island was bestowed by the parliament on Lord Fairfax. He held the power only from 1652 till 1661 or 1662, when the king of England being restored, Charles, Lord Derby, was reinstated. Earl Charles was involved, during his whole life, in the difficulties arising from narrow circumstances; yet, by observing a strict economy, and by some judicious sales and purchases, he succeeded in laying a foundation which eventually

ally restored, in some degree, the wealth of the family. In 1672, William, Earl of Derby, succeeded to this inheritance; and dying without issue in 1703, his brother James became Lord of Man. At his accession, the isle was once more in a state nearly approaching to destruction. The leases granted for three lives had nearly expired; and as no provision had been made relative to their renewal, the neglect of agriculture had become so general, that repeated seasons of scarcity, almost approaching to famine, had occurred. The people, wholly given up to the fishery, or to the pursuit of a contraband trade, were dependent on the opposite coasts for the corn required for their sustenance. Bishop Wilson was the first who had courage to point out to the Earl how entirely this injurious system had originated in the lords of the islands themselves. His judicious remonstrance being seconded by one equally firm and respectful from the Keys, induced his Lordship to grant to his dependants that act of settlement which is justly considered as the Manx Magna Charta, as by it the possessors were firmly established in their lands, and the descent arranged in perpetuity, on payment of certain fixed fines, rents, and duties to the lord.

From this auspicious period, the progress of improvement has been decided, though its first advances were somewhat impeded by the prevalence of the smuggling trade and other adventitious circumstances, only conquerable by time. James, the ninth earl of Derby, dying without children in 1736, the lordship of Man devolved on James Murray, first Duke of Athol, by the Lady Amelia Sophia, daughter of James, seventh earl of Derby; whilst the earldom passed in the male line to Sir Edward Stanley, descended from Thomas the first earl.

Soon after the accession of the Duke of Athol, the British government, finding all other means employed to check the illicit trade ineffectual, made overtures to purchase his right and revest it in the crown; but, as the duke expressed great reluctance to comply with this proposition, the affair was suffered to stand over, on his promise to impose such restraints on the people as should protect the revenue from further injury. The efforts of the duke, if indeed they were faithfully enforced by his agents, proving ineffectual, and he dying in 1764, leaving only one daughter, Charlotte Baroness Strange, who was united in marriage to her cousin, the male heir to the dukedom, his Grace, in right of his wife, thus became possessed also of the Isle of Man; and scarcely was he settled in the property, when the question of the revestment was again brought forward; and in January, 1765, a bill was presented to the House of Commons for more effectually preventing the mischiefs to the revenue and commerce of Great Britain and Ireland from the
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clandestine and illicit trade to and from the Isle of Man. The Duke and Duchefs having petitioned and been heard by counsel, a negotiation was entered into, and they jointly offered (though with every expression of reluctance at the sacrifice imposed on them) to resign their sovereign rights in the Isle of Man, for the sum of 70,000*l.*; and on these terms a treaty was concluded and carried into effect by an act of parliament. This transfer gave great dissatisfaction to the people of the island; the more as they had never been regularly apprized of it while in progress, their House of Keys never assembled, nor their consent to such a change in their political condition obtained or even desired.

In the endeavour to extirpate smuggling, such restraints were imposed on trade, that it was found necessary to dispatch three commissioners to England, to represent the miserable condition of the inhabitants, and endeavour to obtain redress. Happily this succeeded: some clauses of unnecessary severity were repealed, and encouragements held out to the fair trader. From this time, the character and situation of the Manx has been gradually improving: the advantage of being governed by a great nation, instead of a petty lord, is universally felt. Those who had already accumulated large gains from the contraband trade, were, by the change, obliged either to sit down upon the lands they had acquired, and turn their thoughts to agriculture, or to embark their capital in regular commerce. Very few sunk back into the state of apathy formerly indulged. Industry, though ill directed, had been awakened; some luxuries, too, had crept in, which, though not always beneficial to individual character, are still, up to a certain height, universally productive of national advantage.

But whatever pursuits were superinduced, the herring-fishery, supported by ancient habits and early association, was regarded as the chief good; and to this pursuit, requiring neither talent nor labour, the mass of the peasantry still confined their hopes and exertions; on which account agriculture, with its moderate returns and permanent advantages, was yet almost entirely neglected.

The Duke of Athol, in making a sale of the island, had reserved all his feudal rights as lord of the soil, with certain other profits coming under the same description. But these were so strenuously resisted, that in 1790, his Grace resorted to Parliament to establish his mutilated privileges, and on his petition, after much contention, a bill was brought in: the Keys petitioned against that clause which affected the insular rights; and at length, after severe debate, the bill was thrown out.

In 1791, a case was presented to the Privy Council, containing

ing such strong allegations, that commissioners were appointed to visit the island, and make a thorough investigation, both as to the particulars in dispute, and also into the general state of the revenues, produce, and trade. The result of this inquiry proved, that the sum of 70,000*l.* given for the cession had been calculated on a revenue ill managed and unfairly collected; consequently, falling much short of what, under a better system, it might have produced; and that, in other respects, the property meant to have been reserved to the noble complainant, was unnecessarily crippled. In consequence of this report, a fresh bill was offered in 1805, on which the former contentions were renewed in both Houses; and at length the affair was decided, the manorial rights clearly ascertained and established, and an additional sum of 3,000*l.* per annum out of the consolidated fund was settled on the Duke and his heirs for ever.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION. The scenery of the Isle of Man, except on the north side, where it is well wooded, has no great beauties; there is nothing to elevate or astonish, and not much to admire. The island is divided into two unequal portions by a chain of moderately high mountains, running from north-east to south-west, broken at one part, between Mount Kreevey and South Barrule. The most considerable summits are Snawfel and North and South Barrule, the last two forming its extremities. The height of Snawfel, by the barometer, is 580 yards above the level of the sea; and the two Barrules are inconsiderably lower.

RIVERS. The high land between North Barrule and Mount Kreevey gives rise to several rivers, the chief of which empty themselves into the sea at Ramsey, at Laxey, and at Douglas. *Ramsey* river is the longest; and the flat country, through which it finally runs, permits spring-tides to produce their effect upon it two miles from the sea. The northern branch of *Douglas* river rises on the western side of Mount Garrahan. The northern side of South Barrule contributes a portion of its waters to *Peele* river, and another to the river of *Glenmay*. The southern side sends forth a streamlet, one of the branches of *Castletown* river, which joins the other branch a little above Athol bridge, running nearly south. All the streams are very shallow; and smaller ones, not large enough in summer to turn a mill, are very frequent.

MINERALS. The mineral productions of this isle are of little value or curiosity. The chief metallic repositories are veins of lead and copper ores near Laxey, at Foxdale, and at Bredahead, near Port Erin.

CLIMATE. The climate of the Isle of Man is rather milder
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in winter than that of the neighbouring shores; frost and snow being of very short continuance. The heat of summer, on the other hand, is not so great: the harvests are consequently late: the grain does not arrive at its full size; and the straw for fodder is less valuable. Frosts seldom make their appearance before Christmas, and latterly have been so slight as little to impede vegetation. Gales of wind and falls of rain are frequent, and of long duration. In the spring, they render the feeding difficult and incomplete, and are very prejudicial to the tender shoots of corn.

POPULATION. Mr. Curwen says, that at the commencement of the last century, the number of inhabitants on the island was under ten thousand. In 1755, he computes them at fifteen thousand. In 1777, only twelve years after the re-vestment, the numbers had increased to twenty thousand; and they are now estimated at thirty-five thousand.

TOWNS. The towns and places which principally demand notice are, Douglas, Castletown, Derby Haven, the Calf of Man, Peel Town, Ramsey, and Laxey. The villages are all on the coast, the interior being chiefly divided into small farms, or left in wild commons.

Douglas. This town, from various causes, has a pre-eminence over all the others, both in trade and population, although it is not the seat of government. The approach by sea presents a most imposing aspect: on turning either of the heads that form the semicircle of the bay, which is of considerable extent, the eye takes in at once a variety of objects calculated to raise fairy hopes of the interior. On the centre stands the magnificent free-stone palace of the Duke of Athol, called Mona Castle: the hill behind this mansion is planted and cultivated so as to draw forth and embellish all its natural advantages, though the space devoted to this purpose does not exceed five or six acres. At a short distance, is a neat and elegant villa belonging to Colonel Steuart; and in addition to these, several modern houses, at different elevations, overhang the bay, and give an air of modest opulence and comfort to the whole. In a recess at the south side rises the town with a handsome pier; and a light-house, of classical elegance. The whole bay is two miles across, and is sheltered from all winds except the north-east; both its points are rocky and dangerous, and in the middle is a bed of rocks, called "Connister," on which, in the stormy season, many vessels find their destruction. The whole town, which is neither elegant nor commodious, forms a triangle, the longest side extending from the bridge to the pier, but as buildings are rising in every direction, this shape will soon be lost. The pier is in length five hundred and twenty feet,

feet, in breadth forty, and handsomely paved with free-stone. At the distance of four hundred feet it suddenly expands fifty feet to the right: this part being raised forms a semicircle, to which there is an ascent by a flight of steps, and in the centre of the area is the light-house, which, according to the opinion of nautical men, is more to be celebrated for its beauty than utility, being situated considerably within Douglas Head, and so nearly on a level with the town, that its light is often confounded with that of the neighbouring houses. The harbour, which is esteemed the best dry one in the Irish Channel, admits vessels of considerable burthen, at high water, close to the quay. The Custom-House is the best building in the town, and conveniently placed for business. The new streets in the suburbs are well situated, and well constructed for comfort and accommodation. The Assembly Room is spacious, but not elegant or even neat. A theatre has been erected, but the encouragement being insufficient to induce good performers to make even temporary visits, the building is diverted to other purposes. Among the most promising establishments, are a public library and reading-room. There is only one printing-press in the island, from whence a newspaper issues weekly.

In Douglas is a small chapel, dedicated to Saint Matthew; but the place of worship most frequented is a new church, a little above the town, which is neatly finished, and where the pews let at a very high rate. The parish-church, called Kirk-Braddan, is at a distance of two miles: there are, beside these, a Methodist meeting-house, a Presbyterian chapel, and also one for Catholics.

The town has also a school for education on Dr. Bell's plan; a house of reception for the poor, who are maintained without a rate, by contributions collected after divine service; hot and cold baths; and a post-office for the whole isle, for which a packet from England is made up every Monday.

Castletown. Although tradition has handed down no authentic account of the antiquity of the four principal towns, yet there is reason to believe that Castletown, or, as it was originally called, Rushen, is the most ancient; and that it may have been nearly coeval with the castle, though the surrounding buildings, not being framed like that for duration, must have been many times renewed since the first formation of the town. All those now in existence appear to have been raised within the last century, except one, now the George Inn, but formerly the abode of the lieutenant, and of the lord himself, when on the island. The venerable castle was erected in 960, by Gut-tred, the second Danish prince in succession from King Orry.

This

This building, which is remarkable for solidity, bears a strong resemblance, and was probably constructed on the same plan with the castle of Elfsineur, in Denmark. It is of a figure not easily described. A sort of stone glacis runs round the keep, and includes some other buildings now fallen to ruin. This glacis was added by Cardinal Wolsey, during the time that he was guardian to Edward, Earl of Derby. Within the walls are some convenient and partly modernised apartments, appropriated to the use of the Lieutenant-Governor, and also a large court-room devoted to public use. On the walls are three confined buildings where the records are kept, and the business of the Rolls Office is conducted. There are also two rooms sometimes granted as an indulgence to persons confined for debt; but the great mass of unfortunate persons of this description have hitherto been crowded together in those apartments set apart for that use; whilst felons were confined in the interior of the keep. These were in a very bad state, but great improvements have been recently effected. Castletown being the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor, and usually also of the Southern Deemster; and as all law proceedings are conducted there, it must be considered as the metropolis of the island. The streets are regular and airy: in the centre is an open space or square, around which are several very excellent houses, and at one end a neat and well appointed chapel. The Keys have a house appropriated to their use, but it is a mean building. The free-school is considered a very beneficial institution: it owes its rise to Bishop Barrow, who founded it in order to secure a succession of students, who should be properly educated for the ministry. The town has an assembly-room, a reading-room, and is the seat of the island bank.

Derby Haven. About a mile and a half across the sands is the isthmus which joins the peninsula, called Langness Point, to the shore, and by its bend on one side forms an excellent and secure creek, called Derby Haven, where are the remains of a round tower, built by the Earl of Derby in 1603. This was no doubt a commanding point, and much better calculated to repel an enemy than Castle Rushen. Near the fort at Derby Haven are the ruins of a church, by some supposed to have been a cathedral. It is now used as a place of interment for Catholics.

Port Erin. About two miles west of Castletown is *Port le Moray*; and a little beyond that *Port Erin*, a romantic secluded bay, offering an excellent harbour. Near this place are the Giants' Quoiting Stones, as they are called, being large masses of unhewn slate standing erect; and a little further is a barrow, called Fairies' Hill, very generally believed to owe its rise to the

labours of those visionary beings, but, in reality, thrown up in commemoration of Reginald, King of Man, who was slain in single combat by Ivar, in 1248.

The Calf. From Port Erin it is usual to make the passage to the small island called *The Calf*, always an object of curiosity to visitors; the distance from which place is three miles; the circumference of Calf is computed to be five miles, including an area of six hundred acres. A very small part of this surface is converted into arable land, but the whole forms a fine sheep-walk. It is tithe free, and, except in the garden of the farmer, there is not a tree or shrub on the whole island. Rabbits abound every where, and are a great source of profit in the spring. The Calf is also the resort of immense numbers of sea-fowl, who form a most striking and picturesque shew from the water, sitting in innumerable tiers, one above another, on their nests in the clefts of the rocks. The scenery is uncommonly bold and beautiful, especially when thus adorned by its white-breasted inhabitants.

Peel. Peel, which was originally called Holma Town, is twelve miles distant from Douglas, and eight from Castletown; it is more remarkable for its ancient than its present rank. In the feudal times, this town must have derived consequence from its vicinity to the castle, and when the smuggling trade was at its height, Peel was a station of importance, but it is now little more than a narrow, dirty, fishing town. The population is estimated at twelve hundred; the bay abounds with excellent fish, and on this coast the herrings have, for many years, been taken in the greatest abundance.

Peel Castle stands on a peninsula about one hundred yards west of the town; at low water it is joined to the main land by a stone-wall, shelving to the top. Formerly, the approach was by a flight of steps, but time has rendered them nearly useless, and travellers now make their way to the ruins by clambering over the rocks. Until the reversion of the island to the British government, this fortress was garrisoned by native troops in the pay of the lord, who usually gave them English officers; but, at the sale of the royalty, the armoury was cleared of the match-locks and other ancient weapons, the garrison reduced, and the whole has been suffered to fall into a state of ruin. The remains, however, have yet an imposing appearance, the walls are still flanked by towers, and the outline is pretty well defined; it incloses an irregular polygon of two acres. The building was originally composed of a sort of red slate, winged and faced in many parts with red stone. Almost in the centre is a square pyramidal mound of earth, each of its sides facing one of the cardinal points. The admea-
furement

urement of this elevation is seventeen yards, and it is surrounded by a ditch five feet and a half broad, but of the use for which it was designed no account is extant; it is conjectured either to have been an eminence whence a commander might harangue the troops, or, with more probability, the burial place of some great personage. In this fortress two eminent persons have been imprisoned; Elenor, wife to Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, in the reign of Henry VI., and the great Earl of Warwick, who, on one of his reverses, was banished to this island, and detained here. Within the castle walls are the remains of two cathedrals, one dedicated to St. Patrick, and believed to be the first Christian church erected here; the other, inscribed to St. Germain, and built about 1245. This last is described by several ancient authors, particularly Waldron, as having been richly ornamented, and abounding in monumental inscriptions; but if they ever existed they are now decayed.

Three miles from Peel is the celebrated *Tynwald Mount*. Its appearance is pleasing from the neatness with which its singular form is preserved, and venerable from its antiquity, and the interesting purposes to which it is entirely dedicated. It is a circular barrow, of moderate height, formed into a pyramid of three circles, the lowest being about eighty yards in circumference, and the top not more than seven feet in diameter. On this, when the legislative assembly is collected, a canopy and chair are placed for the lord, or his deputy, and the different officers, clergy and keys, take their respective stations below him, whilst the surrounding area is filled with the people. Near the mount stands St. John's Chapel, from whence, after prayers and a sermon, the several persons forming the Tynwald court move in procession to the mount, the ancient formulæ being still observed; though from the great change of circumstances which has taken place since the origin of the institution, the ceremony is so completely divested of the dignity of former days, that it excites little attention, and hardly now affords a holiday-gaze to the mob.

Ramsay. The approach to the town of Ramsay lies over a stone-bridge of three arches, which crosses the Sulley river. The town is small and irregular; but derives a slight degree of importance from being the seat of justice for the northern district. There is a pier which runs out a few hundred feet to sea, and is terminated by a light-house; the bay is spacious, and the anchorage good, but the harbour, from neglect, has become nearly useless, and will only afford shelter to vessels of very small burthen. The country about Ramsay, as well as the neighbourhood, is far superior to the town; the former

being in a high state of cultivation, and chiefly inhabited by native families of considerable respectability, amongst whom a pleasant association is kept up: nor do they so decidedly exclude strangers from all participation in their hospitality, as is sometimes done in other parts of the island.

Laxey. This is a village of little trade, composed of about thirty houses, the retreat of fishermen; but the glen is deserving of notice, for the romantic beauty of its scenery. It is well planted with trees; about half way up are some copper-mines, from whence no great advantages have as yet been derived, though they are occasionally worked; a little way up the valley is a flax spinning-mill. Kirk Lorian, the parish-church, is a mile from the village. At some distance on the road to Douglas, are twelve stones placed in an oval form; just without the oval are two others, six feet high, one of which is cloven from top to bottom: the whole are erected on a mound of earth, elevated four or five feet; in the centre of which is an excavation seven feet long and three wide: the natives have connected several supernatural tales with this spot, but they give no rational account of its origin; most probably the whole is a remnant of Druidism.

RELIGION. The founder of Christianity in the Isle of Man was St. Patrick, who, in the year 444, making a voyage with a company of thirty religious persons from Liverpool to Ireland, was, by the interposition of Providence, driven into this island, where he arrived in the latter end of the reign of Mananan Mac Lyr, whom he found, together with his people, sunk in idolatry, and, as he says, much given to magic. His eloquence, and the miracles he performed, were so persuasive, that in three years he and his followers effected the conversion of the natives, or expelled those who remained obstinate in their errors. Germanus was his successor, and from that time the see has been pretty regularly filled.

BISHOPRIC. The see of this island is termed the Bishopric of Sodor and Man. The origin of the former title is doubtful. Beatson conjectures, that the word *Sodor* is a corruption of *σωτηρ* (our Saviour), to whom the cathedral of Iona was dedicated; while others imagine that it is a corruption of *Suder* (Southern); the Norwegians being accustomed to call the most northern Hebrides *Nordereys*; and the southern, of which Iona is one, *Sudereys*. All the last mentioned islands were in the diocese of the Bishop of Sodor. The derivations already given relate to Iona or the Southern Hebrides; but a charter is still extant, dated 1505, wherein Thomas Earl of Derby and Lord of Man, confirms to Huam Hesketh, bishop thereof, all the

lands usually pertaining to the bishopric : and this charter would induce a belief that the word Sodor was derived from the little island contiguous to Peel, on which is placed the cathedral of Man. It runs thus : "*Ecclesiam cathedralem Sancti Germani in Holm, Sodor, vel Pele vocatam, ecclesiamque Sancti Patricii ibidem et locum præfatum in quo ecclesiæ præfatæ sitæ sunt.*" For some time, the bishops were occasionally appointed by the king of the isle, occasionally elected by the clergy, but ever since the accession of the house of Stanley, the King, or Lord of Man, has constantly appointed, and it is reserved to him in the act of 1765. Among the bishops of Sodor and Man may be found several of the brightest ornaments of the ecclesiastical name, as Dr. Isaac Barrow, Dr. Thomas Wilson, whose life and ministry were formed upon the apostolic model, and his successor Dr. Mark Hildesley, who completed the translation of the Holy Scriptures into the Manx language, a task left imperfect by Dr. Wilson. The Bishop being nominated by the Lord, the nomination is communicated to the King, who dismisses him to the Archbishop of York for consecration. This is said to be the reason why the bishop is not a lord of parliament, as none can have suffrage in that House who does not hold immediately of the King himself. By an act of parliament, the 33d Henry VIII. this bishopric is declared in the province of York. The diocese contains only 17 parishes, of which five are market-towns, the rest villages.

CONSTITUTION, LAWS, AND COURTS.

THE KING. The King of Great Britain has the appointment of all the military, and the chief civil officers. He alone has the power of pardoning criminals ; and may in council hear and finally determine all appeals from the decision of the governor or of the Keys. His consent is necessary to the passing of all laws, and the prerogative of rejection is often exercised. In 1798 several bills were returned altered to the Keys, one of which, in its new form, they rejected.

THE LORD. Whatever may have been the rights of the ancient kings of Man, their present representative has a feigniory or lordship paramount of the highest order. In him are vested the franchises or royal prerogatives, usually incident to sovereign authority ; such as the patronages of the bishopric, escheats, effects of traitors and felons, wrecks of the sea, estrays, deodands, mines, derelict lands, chases, (which word comprises in the fullest extent the exclusive right to game,) forests,

forests, parks, warrens, huntings, and piscaries; all which are reserved to the noble family of Athol in perpetuity, under the ancient honorary service of rendering two falcons to the king on his coronation day.

THE GOVERNOR. The Governor holds his office by His Majesty's appointment. He is chancellor, *ex officio*, and by himself or deputy hears appeals, not relative to land, from the decision of inferior courts, reversing or confirming them according to his judgment. The consent of himself or of his lieutenant is necessary to the making of a law; but not that of the lord proprietor, unless he is also governor or lieutenant. The proprietor may, however enter *caveats* against the King's consent, and have his petition heard; and in or about the year 1789 he actually did so. The Duke of Athol is at present both lord and governor. He is bound by oath to deal truly and uprightly between the King and his subjects, and indifferently between party and party; to call together, when he thinks it necessary, the council of the isle, and to do and perform these and all other things appertaining to the government, and the post and office of Governor-in-Chief and Captain-General, according to the purport and extent of his commission.

THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR. The Lieutenant-Governor, or Governor, as he was usually called, possessed whatever power his lord or sovereign thought proper to confer, and this was usually the whole. He was termed the representative of Majesty. The Scotch and English lord proprietors meddled little with internal affairs, and rarely visited this dominion; the chief care of government devolved therefore upon the Lieutenant. When the appointment came to be made by the King of England, the nature of the office became certain. The Lieutenant has now all the powers of the Governor during his absence; and none during his presence, except what the Governor does not think proper to assume. It is not, however, his practice to consent to the making of laws; as the statute books shew only one instance in which he has done so, which was in 1776. All other acts specify the consent of the Governor-in-Chief, whether the Tynwald court be held before himself or the Lieutenant-Governor.

THE COUNCIL. This body is convened at the pleasure of the Governor, to assist and advise him, as a privy or executive council; and also in the administration of justice, at his chancery, exchequer, and appellate courts. It usually consists of the Lord Bishop, the Receiver-General, the two Deemsters, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Water-Bailiff, and Attorney-

General, together with the Archdeacon, and the two Vicars-General. The duty of the Council, when not acting in their legislative or judicial capacity, is, in cases of emergency, to act for the public good in a summary way; as in laying an embargo prohibiting the exportation of grain or victuals in time of scarcity, and similar acts of authority. Respecting the persons who compose and have a right to a seat and voice in the Council, which, with the Governor, forms the second branch of the legislative power in the island, various opinions have been offered. In 1776, the Governor excluded from the Council the Bishop and the Vicar-General, alleging that their seats were held only through courtesy. The spiritual officers, however, maintained their right: and the claim, although protested against by the Attorney-General, was allowed by the Lieutenant-Governor.

THE DEEMSTERS. The Deemsters are judges of the highest antiquity, and, till the passing of certain modern acts of Tynwald, which have abridged their authority, possessed a higher magisterial power, both in the administration of the common and criminal law, than any other judges in Europe. It is recorded that they governed the people by a *jus non scriptum*, which was committed to their honour and fidelity as a thing holy and sacred, and by them communicated to posterity by oral tradition; consequently, whatever they juridically pronounced, was received as law; whence, from all antiquity, and even to a recent period, the islanders designated their common law by the title of *breast-law*, as being deposited in the breasts of their Deemsters and Keys, and which only on important occasions was divulged to the people. The Deemsters were always the lord's chief judges of the common law, and privy-councillors; in the ancient court-rolls they are styled "*justiciarii domini regis*;" and to this day, in civil matters, their jurisdiction is most extensive and unlimited; and in all public acts and instruments of legislation, they sign their names apart from the other officers. From these circumstances, and from the nature of their oath, it may be inferred, that the Deemsters are not, in strictness, members of council, but attend the meetings of that body to give their advice, bearing a resemblance to the attendance of the twelve judges upon the House of Lords.

THE HOUSE OF KEYS. The origin, antiquity, and constitution of this body are lost in the obscurity of time; but its existence is considered more recent than that of the Deemsters. The Keys are landholders, and their number is now twenty-four, but it was not always so great. They have been referred to as a legislative power when only twelve: in one of the old statutes it is recorded, that their existence was wholly at the

will of the Lord, without whose consent none were to be. This decision, which is stated to have been from the Deemsters, in answer to a question of Sir John Stanley, second Lord of Man, was exceedingly ill received, and although recorded in the statute-book, it was yet virtually rescinded almost as soon as made. The original form of election is no where mentioned; but immediately after the above declaration, such was the ferment it excited, that it was thought prudent on the part of the Deputy-Governor, Byron, to grant the people a share in the election. Accordingly, in 1422, he sent out his precept to the six sheadings, directing them severally to elect six men, out of which six he chose four to represent their respective districts, and these made up the twenty-four Keys, by whose advice and concurrence, at that time, several laws and regulations were made. Why this mode of election has not been preserved, or how the people have lost a right so invaluable as that of choosing their own representatives, is not explained; custom has, however, completely abrogated this privilege, and the practice now established is, that when a vacancy happens, the remaining members elect two persons, one of whom receives the approbation of the Governor, and thenceforward retains his seat for life, unless he vacates by voluntary resignation, accepting a place in council, or is expelled by the vote of the majority for some high crime or misdemeanor. What mode would be adopted, if the Governor disapproved of both the nominations, is not settled; nor is it known that the case has ever occurred. The Keys cannot assemble without a summons from the Governor, and his mandate dissolves the sitting without delay or demur. In the separate meetings of the Keys, the number of thirteen is required to form a house. They elect their own Speaker, who holds his office for life, and they decide by a majority. The qualifications of a member are, to be of full age, that is twenty-one years, and to possess landed property in the island. Non-residence, or even being a foreigner, is no impediment to election. Their privileges were of more value in the feudal times than at present; they being exempt from all duties and services to the lord, and free to kill game in any part of the country. To charge a Key with misconduct in the performance of his duty, subjects the offender to a penalty and loss of ears. This body have always possessed the confidence of the people, and though self-elected, seem never to have abused their power. The office is attended with much trouble and no emolument; but it is every day rising in consideration, and places an individual in the same relative station as being a member of the House of Commons does in Great Britain.

THE TYNWALD. This court is composed of the Governor and Council, the Keys, and the Deemsters as assistants. It is the ancient legislature of the island, and by its statutes alone the inhabitants claimed to be governed. The name is by some derived from two Danish words, *ting*, an assembly of the people, or court of justice; and *wald*, a field or place, or possibly fenced; by others, from the British words *tyng* and *val*, signifying "the juridical hill."

This court, or assembly, was in ancient times held annually, or sometimes twice in a year, at a place called the Tynwald Mount, situated about three miles from Peel. The way up this artificial elevation is by a flight of steps of turf on the eastern side. The diameter of the summit does not exceed seven feet. Round this, and three feet below it, is an annular plot about four feet wide; below is another, six feet wide; and further down another, still wider. The circumference of the outer circle is nearly eighty yards; all the angles are rounded, and almost the whole surface is of turf. This place of meeting was sufficiently commodious while the seat of government was at Peel Castle, but since the revestment of the island in the crown, the assembly has more generally been held at Castle Rushen. In former times the court was opened with a grand procession, and held with all the circumstances which the island could afford to give it a solemn effect; but in latter days these ceremonials have been much abridged and disregarded. Formerly no law could have effect unless agreed to by the court, and proclaimed, by their order, in the Manx language from the Tynwald Mount. Since the revestment, courts have been held, and statutes passed for internal regulation, the propriety of which has never been questioned, but the legislature of England has assumed the entire power of enacting laws respecting the customs or port-dues of the island, and also of regulating or prohibiting any manufactures which might be liable to affect the revenue: in the internal economy and laws it has not interfered.

COURTS OF LAW. In the Isle of Man are established various courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction; the principal of which, exclusive of the House of Keys, are the Court of *Chancery*, the Court of *General Gaol Delivery*, the Court of *Exchequer*, the *Common Law* or *Sheading Courts*, the two *Deemsters' Courts*, the Court of *Admiralty* or *Water-Bailiff's Court*, the *Ecclesiastical Courts*, and the Courts of the *High-Bailiff* of each of the four principal towns; all which have an original jurisdiction, and controlling grounds of determination: but the courts possessing appellate jurisdiction are the Keys, and His Majesty in council.

For

For the more convenient administration of justice, the island is divided into two districts, with a deemster or judge for each; but the Courts of Chancery, General Gaol Delivery, Exchequer, and the southern Common Law Courts, are held in Castle Rushen; and all the judges and law officers, except the ecclesiastical, are commissioned by His Majesty, *durante bene placito*. These districts are subdivided into six sheadings or divisions, over each of which is annually, about Midsummer, appointed by the Governor a coroner, with extensive powers; the name and office of sheriff being here unknown.

By the ancient constitution, the King or his Lieutenant, assisted by the Deemsters, Council, and Keys, took cognizance of all pleas, civil and criminal; for the great Tynwald Court was originally held only for the promulgating of laws, and, like the Wittenagemote, or General Council of the Saxons, formed one supreme court, or *Aula Regia*, for private justice and public business; and this did not interfere with the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, for the exercise of which there were, from remote antiquity, separate tribunals. But in later periods, as the island increased in population, commerce, and wealth; and consequently, when suitors and causes became more numerous, it was necessary to institute the different courts before mentioned. In all the courts, the party is at liberty to plead his own cause; but in matters of importance, the trial is usually conducted by an advocate, who, by the statute of 1777, must first be commissioned by the Governor, and take the usual oaths. By this act, if an attorney should become bail in any cause, or carry on any suit by way of champerty, he subjects himself to fine and imprisonment at the discretion of the court, and is rendered incapable of practising in future. By the act of revestment the courts were left untouched, excepting that, the Lord's juridical authority being abolished, the court of His Majesty in council became the immediate, as well as the last court of appeal from the jurisdictions within the isle.

APPEALS. When an appeal to His Majesty in council is demanded, the party must petition the Governor, and enter into a bond, with sureties, in such penal sum as he may think proper, to prosecute the appeal within a limited time; the lodgment of the appeal is considered to be a sufficient proceeding to prevent the recovery of the penalty, and afterwards it behoves the respondent to press the cause to a hearing and ultimate decision.

Such being the general outline of the administration of justice, it is not intended to describe with minuteness the jurisdiction and proceedings of each court, but merely to mention the presiding power and most striking circumstances.

CHANCEBY. In this supreme court, the Governor, or, in his absence, the Lieutenant, presides; and he is assisted by the Deemsters, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Attorney-General, and the Admiral or Water-Bailiff, who all, since the revesting act, hold their situations during the pleasure of His Majesty.

COURT OF GAOL DELIVERY. This is a court of peculiar dignity and splendour: the Governor, the Bishop, his Arch-deacon and Vicars-general, the Deemsters, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Water-Bailiff, and Attorney-General, together with the twenty-four Keys, all presiding for the purpose of trying capital offences; those of a subordinate nature being heard and determined before the magistrates. The bills are found by a grand jury, and tried by a petty jury, as in England; but with this difference, that an English grand jury is restricted to the hearing of evidence on behalf of the prosecution only; but, in the Isle of Man, depositions are also taken on the part of the prisoner in his presence. If the bill is not found, he is immediately discharged: if found, he is tried before the general court, where the verdict of the first jury is produced, and previous to the trial, the prisoner may challenge fifty-four of the jury of General Gaol Delivery; the constitution requiring that four good men should be summoned out of every parish in the island, amounting in number to sixty-eight. A jury of twelve being impanelled, they are sworn and charged by the Deemster; the prisoner is arraigned on the indictment by the Clerk of the Rolls, and the prosecution is conducted by the Attorney-General. Counsel are allowed to plead for the prisoner, cross-examine the witnesses for the Crown, and reply to the Attorney-General.

When the pleadings are concluded, and the jury are agreed on their verdict, a very ancient and remarkable ceremony ensues. The Deemster demands of the foreman, in the Manx language, *Vod fir charree soie?* "May he that ministers at the altar continue to sit?" If the foreman answers that he may not, it is understood to be the precursor to the verdict of guilty, and the Bishop and his clergy immediately retire; but should the answer be in the affirmative, the verdict of not guilty is returned, and the prisoner is immediately discharged.

After trial and conviction (benefit of clergy being here unknown) the senior Deemster pronounces sentence of death, which consists of being hanged by the neck till dead; no other punishment for capital offences being used, except that for treason; but the execution must be delayed till the pleasure of His Majesty is known. For treason the sentence was "forfeiture of lands and goods; drawing with horses; then being hanged and quartered, the head stricken off, and, with one quarter, set

set upon the Castle tower over the burn, another quarter at Halland, now called Peel, the third at Ramsey, and the fourth at Douglas." For offences less than capital, by an ordinance of Sir John Stanley, made in 1422, "the prisoner must forfeit his goods, and then might have his choice of three things; first, to rest in prison a-year and a-day with bread, two parts meal and the third ashes, and drink of the water next the prison-door; second, to forswear the King and all his land; or else, for the third, to pay the King three pounds." On capital convictions, by an ordinance in 1504, "all felons' goods, as horses, mares, oxen, and kine above two years old, belong to the Lord, and those that are two years and under to the Coroner."

COURT OF COMMON LAW. In this court are tried all actions which are commonly brought before courts of the same description in England, and the assessment of damages is referred to a jury, under the direction of the Deemster. Evidence is given *ore tenus*, and if required, is taken down in writing, and afterwards read to and signed by the witnesses in open court. In case of an appeal from the verdict of the jury to the twenty-four Keys, these depositions are read to and commented upon by the respective advocates, and are received by the House as sufficient, and therefore preclude the necessity of examining the witnesses *viva voce* again. The Keys, on such an appeal, which may be entered by either party, claim the extraordinary right not only of revising matters of form, or deciding on errors apparent on the face of the proceedings, but of lessening or increasing, at their pleasure, the amount of the verdict.

EXCHEQUER. In this court, the Governor is empowered to make such orders and rules, from time to time, for the better regulating the practice and proceedings, as occasion shall require. Its authority extends over revenue and tithe causes.

THE DEEMSTERS' COURT. Owing to the longitudinal formation of the island, the Deemsters were always two in number; and their situation, for the more convenient administration of justice, is at the north and south districts; where all matters of litigation that can arise, either by trespasses, flanders, assaults, batteries, debts, contracts, or dealings, are weekly, or oftener, heard and determined without the intervention of a jury; but from their judgment an appeal lies to the Governor in council. In order to secure correctness in his administration, the Deemster is sworn to execute the laws of the isle justly, "between the King and the subject, and between party and party, as indifferently as the herring's back-bone doth lie in the midst of the fish." It has been an ancient custom in the island, that if a person finds his adversary present, while the court is sitting, he may take him by the arm, and bring him
before

before the Deemster, and set his foot on his adversary's foot, and instantly plead his cause against the defendant; but this mode of proceeding has fallen into disuse.

HIGH BAILIFFS. This officer is appointed by the Governor during pleasure, for the four towns of Castletown, Douglas, Peel, and Ramsey; he is conservator of the peace, and superintendant of the police, and has jurisdiction in all matters of debt under forty shillings. He is also empowered to take the acknowledgement of parties, or testimony of witnesses, for the probate of all deeds or instruments brought before him.

COURT OF THE WATER BAILIFF OR ADMIRALTY. By the constitution of the island, the office of admiral, or water-bailiff, was always held of high importance, and, from time immemorial, he was one of the King's or Governor's council. As sole judge of the Admiralty Court, which is usually held every Saturday, he has cognizance of all pleas of the crown respecting maritime concerns, and offences committed on the seas within the distance of three leagues from the shore of the island. And, according to the ancient statutes, he has superintendence over all matters relative to the herring fishery. In all civil suits an appeal lies from his determination to the governor. Should the cause require a jury, the water-bailiff issues a warrant to the coroner, requiring him to summon four persons out of his sheading, who must attend at the time appointed, to hear the evidence, and give their unanimous verdict, on which a decree is pronounced by the judge; in cases of a criminal nature, a jury of six men must be summoned by the coroner, whose verdict must be unanimous.

THE CORONER. The Coroners possess authorities analogous to those both of sheriffs and coroners in England. Over each of the six sheadings, or great divisions of the island, the governor appoints one coroner, who is not only a ministerial officer, but a conservator of the peace throughout his district, with power to raise the country for its civil defence and the suppression of riots; and by virtue of several old ordinances and statutes, he is to continue in office no longer than one year.

The Coroner has power of taking inquests, to find out the cause of sudden or violent deaths, *super visum corporis*. He is bound to summon juries, to execute process issuing from the Governor, the Judges, or courts of justice; and he has authority to sell, after the legal forms are gone through, such effects as he has arrested or distrained in the first instance. In criminal matters, or for breach of the peace, he may arrest by virtue of his office, and without a warrant; and the party breaking the peace, or who strikes or obstructs the coroner in the execution of his office, besides incurring imprisonment, forfeits

forfeits three pounds to the Lord. Like the English sheriff, he must execute the sentence of the Judge, though it should extend to death. It is also the Coroner's duty to assist in the salvage and sale of wrecks belonging to the Crown or the Lord. In order that the Coroner may be enabled to execute these various duties, he has under him a deputy in each parish, called a *Lockman*. There is also in each parish in the island an ancient officer called a *Moar*, who collects the rents and fines due to the Lord, and also the escheats, deodands, waifs, and estrays, for the Lord's use. The Moar also executes the precepts of the baron court. By the statute of 1442, four-pence shall be paid yearly out of every quarter-land to the Coroner, and two-pence for cottages and intacks of above three shillings and four-pence rent. The Coroner, beside the horses, mares, oxen, and kine, of two years old and under, the property of felons, is entitled to their sheep of one year old and under, as well as to their broken stack of oats; and also to the corbs appertaining to an heir convicted of felony; and he is also entitled to the broken stack of corn, and beasts of three years old and under, the property of a *felo de se*.

ECCLESIASTICAL COURT. The Ecclesiastical Court, under the presidency of the Bishop, has a jurisdiction similar to that of courts of the same denomination in England, and as in those, proceeds according to the divine law and the holy canons of the church. The *Archdeacon* is the second spiritual magistrate in the island, and he has, in all inferior cases, alternate jurisdiction with the Bishop. The Archdeacon enjoys many privileges, both temporal and spiritual, and he holds his courts either in person or by his official, as the bishop does by his vicars-general; but the usual appeal, in matters purely ecclesiastical, lies from all these courts to the metropolitan, the Archbishop of York.

THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL. The Attorney-General is appointed by the Crown, and the nature and duties of his office are comprised and explained in his oath. He swears that he will faithfully, justly, and truly, without favour or affection, dread or fear, envy or malice, and without respect to love or gain, kindred or friendship, consanguinity or affinity, plead and defend the causes of the King, as by law required. That he will also, when required by the Governor, or in his absence, by the Lieutenant-governor, plead and defend the cause of all widows, orphans, and fatherless children, and be aiding and assisting, with his best advice and counsel, the Governor or his Lieutenant, for the furtherance of the government and benefit of the isle.

TRADE.

THE HERRING FISHERY. The principal trade of the Isle of Man is founded on the taking and curing of the herring. The number of herrings annually cured in the island is subject to considerable variation, but is calculated at an average of between eight and ten millions. A barrel contains about six hundred. Formerly premiums were given to the owners of successful boats, and certain bounties upon all that were exported to foreign lands; but both are discontinued.

EXPORTS. The chief exports, beside herrings, are strong linens and sail-cloth, but in no large quantities, there being but one factory for making these articles, and that on a small scale. Considerable supplies of grain have of late years been sent to Liverpool, with butter, eggs, fowls, bacon, and some other trifling matters. There is a manufactory of woollens, but these are eagerly bought up for home consumption.

BANK. The want of a sufficient currency has induced many persons in trade to issue notes and cards, in value from one guinea to half-a-crown, but the only regular bank established in the island is at Castletown, and the notes and cards of this, from its known stability, obtain a natural and decided preference.

IMPORTS. The imports are all kinds of manufactured goods, chiefly from Liverpool; coal from thence, and from the ports in Cumberland: wine from Oporto and Guernsey, from whence also they get brandy and Geneva: rum must pass through an English or Scotch port. Since the year 1765, the contraband trade has been nearly annihilated; the little that is now done is supposed to be by coasting vessels.

MANUFACTORIES. The manufactories for internal consumption, beside that already mentioned for woollen cloths, are breweries, soap and candle manufactories, and tanneries. There are few shops, and not many houses occupied by the lower orders, where spirits are not sold, either in large or small quantities. Most of the small farmers and cottagers still spin their own wool and flax, and get them made into cloth by village weavers, there being generally one or two looms in every parish; these practices are favourable to economy, and encourage domestic industry, whilst they preserve the simplicity of the peasants.

REVENUES. At the time of the revestment, the custom-house duties given up to government by the Duke of Athol were estimated at 6,547*l.* per annum. In 1790, the duties were only 3,006*l.*, while the expenditure was 3,272*l.* Such measures

measures were then taken, that in 1792 the gross amount of duties was raised to 12,000*l.*, and equal care and vigilance have been exercised since that period.

The revenue retained by the Lord arises from a rental on all lands, amounting to 1,400*l.* Manx currency, from manorial rights and fines, a few fees, and the prerogatives already enumerated.

JERSEY.

SITUATION. Jersey, at its N.W. point, is situated in north latitude $49^{\circ} 16'$, and in $2^{\circ} 22'$ longitude west of London. It forms the most southern island of that groupe, which lies in St. Michael's Bay, on the coast of Lower Normandy and Brittany. That ample gulf sweeps from *Cap de la Hogue*, in the former province, to *Cap de Frehelle*, in the latter. The distance from Jersey to Carteret, or to Port Bail, which are the two nearest French ports, is only from five to six leagues; to Guernsey, about seven; to Alderney, about ten; to Weymouth, about twenty-five; to the Isle of Wight, about thirty; and to Southampton, about forty leagues. The form of this island is that of an irregular parallelogram. Its greatest length from S.E. to N.W. is about twelve miles; and the average breadth may be estimated at full five miles, but does not in any part exceed seven. By a very accurate measurement, it contains a superficies of between thirty-nine and forty thousand acres.

NAME. This island was known to the ancients under various appellations; its present name is derived from *Cæsarea*; some suppose that it was called *Augia* before it had the latter denomination.

APPEARANCE. Jersey exhibits an inclined plane; part of its eastern coast, commencing at *Mont Orgueil*, and the whole of its northern shore, form one continuous range of rocks, rising abruptly from the ocean, frequently to an elevation of from forty to fifty fathoms. This natural defence renders the island, in those quarters, nearly inaccessible. The rocks in their exterior are, in general, mere naked ridges, projecting their sharp angles into the sea; thus adding to the rapidity of the currents, and varying their courses. From these rugged cliffs the land declines toward the southern coast, which, in several places, is nearly on a level with the sea. From the wedge-like form of Jersey, it must be evident, that little table-land exists in the island; nor is the surface a widely extended declivity: it is mostly composed of elevated parts, running from north to south,

south, intersected by deep, and in general by narrow vales. The sides, or *coteaux*, of these eminences are frequently steep and craggy: they follow the inclined course of the island; so likewise do the numerous rivulets of excellent water that gurggle along the valleys: these receive the tributary streamlets that issue from so infinite a variety of sources, that perhaps no spot in the universe is more amply and beneficially refreshed. The rocks which environ the island form a chain of natural defence. There are beside, many detached masses both above and below the surface, in different parts of the surrounding ocean, which constitute a formidable barrier, and by obstructing the natural course of the tides, produce a multitude of strong and diversified currents, which contribute a prodigious accession of strength to the other natural outworks.

TIDES. There is something very extraordinary in the tides that flow and ebb among these islands. The directions they follow seem totally uninfluenced by others in the Channel. They receive indeed their *momentum* at its mouth, but take different impulses, from the various obstructions that divert the regularity of their course. They flow E. S. E. to the Bay of *Mont St. Michel*. The declivity of the shore, in this gulf, is so inconsiderable, that the common extent of the tide is from twelve to sixteen miles; and the bay is filled in the short space of two hours. When this is effected, a new direction takes place. The saturated inlet resists a greater accession, and the water is impelled along the Norman coast, northwards, until, in the course of twelve hours, it has encircled the islands, and returned to the spot from whence it began to flow. The currents, from being frequently intersected, succeed each other in so rapid a manner that they are in continual motion: there is no appearance of still water in these parts, as in the Channel, at low ebb.

CLIMATE. The winter in Jersey is much milder than in any part of England; so much, that the tenderest plants are exposed without shelter and with little injury, and in moderately favourable situations spring-flowers bloom, in the months when the inhabitant of England never expects to see them. Considerable heat is felt in summer; but, on the whole, the climate may be considered as mild, and the air as very salubrious.

DIVISIONS. The island is divided into twelve parishes; these are, *Trinity*, *St. John's*, and *St. Mary's*, on the north; *St. Owen's*, *St. Peter's*, and *St. Brelade's* (or *Breuerlade's*), on the west; *St. Lawrence's*, *St. Helier's*, and *St. Saviour's*, on the south; *St. Clement's*, *Grouville*, and *St. Martin's*, on the east. These, with the exception of the parish of *St. Owen*, are again divided into *Vintaines*, or double tithings. The divisions in
that

that parish are called *Cuillettes*. All border, more or less, on the sea, except *St. Saviour's*, and even this has one point of contact. Each parish has an ancient church, the first that of *St. Brelade*, having been consecrated in 1111; the most recent that of *St. Hilier*, in 1341.

PRODUCE. Jersey produces the grain useful for the food of man, and many luxuries of the garden, particularly the strawberry and the *Chaummantel* pear, in the highest perfection. Its principal animals are the cows commonly called *Alderney* cows, rabbits, and the red-legged partridge, but the breed of this beautiful bird is on the decline.

RELIGION. The people of Jersey in the most ancient times followed the system of the Druids. Their conversion to Christianity was the consequence of a persecution in England, which obliged great numbers, both of laity and clergy, to seek a retreat from the Saxon invaders. Among the most conspicuous for sanctity of life and eminence of character, was *St. Samson*, who had become a metropolitan in Britain. The see of *Dol*, in Armorica, was conferred on him, but being unequal to its new dignity, considerable accessions were made to it by the religious zeal of different princes. Jersey, Guernsey, and the adjacent islands were at that time subject to France, and *Childebert*, son of *Clovis*, presented them to Saint Samson, about the year 550, for an augmentation to his small diocese. The number of beneficed clergy, or incumbents, including the dean, is just equal to that of the parishes, the canons of Jersey absolutely forbidding pluralities. The dean is always one of the rectors.

SPIRITUAL COURT. Here is a regular Spiritual Court, of which the dean is the head: the other eleven rectors are his assessors. This court has attached to it a greffier, or register, two advocates, or proctors, with an apparitor to execute its summonses. Two or three ministers, with the dean or vice-dean, are sufficient to form a court. Appeals may be made from this tribunal to the Bishop of Winchester, as superior ordinary; or, in case of a vacancy in that see, to the Archbishop of Canterbury; such appeals must be heard by the prelate in person.

TITHES. The rectors are entitled to the small, and in some instances, to a part of the great tithes; the remainder of these belongs principally to the Crown, and forms a part of the Governor's salary. Thus, instead of being rectories, the livings may with more propriety be denominated vicarages. This abridgement of the spiritual revenues has been the subject of constant complaint, and it has frequently prevented gentlemen from bringing up their sons to the clerical profession.

CLERGY.

CLERGY. At the commencement of the Reformation, the youths of Jersey, designed for the ministry, were sent to study among the Protestants in France, and especially at Saumur: but Archbishop Laud obtained from Charles I. a grant of some houses and lands, for the endowment of three fellowships in Oxford, for the islands of Jersey and Guernsey alternately. They are in the colleges of Exeter, Jesus, and Pembroke. To these fellowships there have since been added five exhibitions or scholarships, in Pembroke College, each of 12*l.* per annum: three for Jersey, and two for Guernsey. They were founded by Morley, Bishop of Winchester. Some years before these foundations, a Jersey man, named Laurens Baudains, gave thirty-two quarters of wheat for the same laudable purposes.

Two regular church-services are appointed for every Sunday: one of these is in most of the parishes performed in the English language. At St. Helier's there is, in addition, an evening service. Every parish has a fund, supported by legacies, for keeping the church and the parsonage-house in repair.

SCHOOLS. There are, in Jersey, two free grammar-schools, each for the children of six parishes; one in St. Saviour's parish, called (by corruption of St. Magloire) St. Manlier's; the other in the parish of St. Peter, called St. Athanasius's. They were founded in 1498. Two public schools for the instruction of poor children of both sexes, have been established by voluntary subscriptions; and there is an auxiliary Bible Society.

HISTORY. This island appears first to have been possessed by the Celts; after them, probably about the time of Julius Cæsar, came the Romans; the Franks became its sovereigns, sometime in the fifth or sixth century; after many invasions, and much desolation, it was ceded to Rollo, Duke of Normandy in 912, to be holden as a fief of the crown of France. Under William the Conqueror it was annexed to his sovereignty as King of England and Duke of Normandy; and although all the continental dominions heretofore belonging to England have long since been severed from the Crown, this island, with its two neighbours Guernsey and Sark, have never been alienated. The French have repeatedly endeavoured to regain these possessions; their last invasion in 1781 was made with the greatest probability of success; but a complete cession was more apprehended from the necessities of Charles II., before his Restoration, than at any other period before or since.

PRIVILEGES. The attachment of this territory to England, while it is locally within the very grasp of France, could only be secured by the concession of great and valuable privileges, and indeed such do the inhabitants possess as render them a very enviable

enviable portion of the British subjects. A constitution granted by King John prevents the removal of suits begun before their magistrates into any other court; and frees the property of felons from forfeiture. Jersey enjoys the benefit of being a free port, the restrictions in this respect being more properly regulations. There were, until the peace in 1815, only a few duties on the imports, but no prohibitions. The island is also protected from the impress act. Formerly there were not any taxes; unless we consider as such the parochial rates for the indigent, and for the highways: these have of late been raised; but they are still very moderate, when compared with similar assessments in England. The only restraint on the foreign commerce of Jersey relates to the British West-India islands, with which there is no direct intercourse. The inhabitants of these islands are for ever exempted from all taxes, imposts, and customs, in the towns, markets, and ports of England, that are not levied on other subjects. They elect all their own magistrates, with the exception of the bailiff, his deputy, and a few other officers. No act of the British parliament will extend to Jersey, unless it be specifically named in the act, and its provisions applied to the island; and even such an act cannot operate, unless accompanied with an order of council: but even parliament does not levy any tax. This exemption is not so properly a grant or privilege, as a natural and necessary consequence of these islands being a peculiar of the English crown: for, as Coke says, "*though they are parcel of the dominion of the crown of England, yet they are not, nor ever were, parcel of the realm of England.*"

COMMERCE. The trade of Jersey, in itself, is not considerable. She receives from England, corn, flour, live and dead stock, fish, seeds, cloth, linen, and, generally speaking, nearly all things necessary for subsistence, clothing and furniture; together with coals, crockery, glass-ware, paving stone, and a great variety of other useful and ornamental articles.

In return for these, Jersey sends to England, cyder, cows, knit worsted stockings, fruit, and in some years, potatoes. The quantity of cyder exported annually to the mother-country may be averaged at about 900 pipes, and the number of horned-cattle at nearly 800. The produce of the island exported to foreign parts is very inconsiderable, with the exception, during the latter period of the war, of potatoes to Spain and Portugal; while the articles imported from abroad, and actually consumed in the island, form a large aggregate amount. The advantages of situation, however, and the privileges before adverted to, render commerce, in time of war, a very advantageous pursuit.

MANUFACTURES. There are two manufactories for cyder, besides large quantities made by the growers. There are also rope-makers, brewers, brick-makers, lime-burners, tanners, soap-boilers, candle-makers, and distillers, that have regular establishments, and worsted stockings are spun and knit in private houses.

REVENUE AND MONEY. The revenue is computed at 110,000 livres French currency, derived from inconsiderable imposts on wines, aided by occasional lotteries. The coin current in Jersey was, until lately, chiefly that of France, with a small proportion of Spanish money. The usual amount of specie, in circulation, has been estimated at nearly 80,000*l.* sterling. After the French Revolution, the coin of England came more generally into use, until the increased value of gold and silver completely drained the island of all specie but copper, and even that became scarce. There were, at this period, three regular banking-houses in the town of St. Helier. These, and a few mercantile men, were accustomed to issue notes, payable to the bearer on demand, for twenty-four livres French currency, or one pound sterling. So great, however, and so increasing were the inconveniences occasioned by the almost total disappearance of silver, that those houses were obliged to issue notes of five and ten shillings: this induced individuals to do the same; all having "Jersey Bank" on their notes; until there were about eighty of these *soi disant* bankers. The island was soon inundated with notes, from the value of one pound down to that of one shilling; many of them issued by the lowest description of traders and publicans. Alarming as this undoubtedly was, necessity gave to these notes a general and ready circulation. Seriously aware of the ultimate consequences likely to result from this unrestrained emission of paper-money, the States resolved to have a silver coin struck: accordingly tokens were issued, bearing the value of three shillings, and of eighteen-pence English, to the amount of 10,000*l.* sterling. The issuing of notes, under the sum of one pound sterling, was then forbidden; yet such apprehensions respecting the notes still in circulation were excited among the country inhabitants, that those who attended the market, hoarded all the coin and tokens they could procure: this was at least the reason assigned and generally believed, for the disappearance, in a few months, of nearly all the new coined silver. Although French currency is the general standard by which mercantile concerns are regulated, yet there is another still customary at the court of justice, in estimating fines, damages, &c., and which has been used even in other transactions.

actions. This is called *order money*, and is valued at one half more than current money.

POPULATION. In 1814, the population of Jersey was returned at 22,855 persons; but the peace in 1815 causing a relaxation of public works, many individuals who had been employed by government quitted the island.

LANGUAGE. The vernacular language is French. Divine service, and preaching, the pleadings in court, and the public acts, are all in good French; though, in legal documents, some obsolete forensic terms are still retained. The upper ranks understand and occasionally speak it; but, in compliance with custom, and to avoid the appearance of an affected superiority over the lower classes, they too frequently converse in the provincial tongue, or, as it is called, *Jersey French*, a heterogeneous compound of antiquated French, intermixed with modern expressions and gallicised English words. English is, however, becoming daily more and more prevalent; the necessity of comprehending the soldiery has made it understood, even by the lowest orders of people: it would indeed be soon generally spoken, instead of the present jargon, were it particularly encouraged.

THE GOVERNOR. The principal officer in Jersey, he who more immediately represents the sovereign, whose power is the least subject to control, and who claims the precedency of all others, is the governor. To support the dignity of this appointment, the King allows the holder of it his whole revenue in the island, deducting some fees and salaries. This revenue arose formerly from seven manors let out in fee-farm; and from various other sources: at present it consists principally of the corn tithes of ten parishes. The tithes of St. Saviour are annexed to the deanery; those of St. Helier were granted by James II. to Sir Edward Carteret. The governor appoints a peculiar officer, styled *Le Receveur du Roy*, who receives these rents and revenues. There are now two receivers.

The power of the governors has varied, as their respective commissions have, at different times, been either enlarged or restrained. Anciently the governor had a mixed power. He had the administration of both the civil and military authority. He was judge as well as governor; and had the disposal of all places in court, church, and garrison. He is now reduced to almost a mere military commander; has the custody of the fortresses; the regular troops are under his control; and so, in a great measure, is the island militia.

In ancient times there was not any *lieutenant-governor* of the King's own appointment, and in the pay of the crown. That

office seems to have been created to supply the now customary non-residence of the governor himself.

COURT OF JUDICATURE. The Jersey Court of Judicature consists of the bailiff and twelve jurats. The former is appointed by the King, and represents His Majesty in court: there, as a standing memorial of his independence, his seat is raised above that of the governor. The *jurats*, who are his assessors, must be Protestants of the Church of England. Their office was instituted by King John, and they are elected by the people.

The province of the jurats is not only to decide private controversies, but also to enforce a general obedience to the laws. They are chosen for life, unless dismissed by the sovereign, or discharged by him on petition. The bailiff is the mouth, or organ of the court. He presides in all the debates, sums up the opinions, and pronounces the sentence or decision; yet he has not any deliberative voice himself, unless upon an equal division of opinions among the jurats; in this case he has a casting vote: he is otherwise bound by the majority, and must pronounce accordingly. He is the keeper of the public seal, which, however, he cannot use without the joint concurrence of three jurats. The duties of his office require a thorough knowledge of the laws, and an almost constant attendance; it is therefore a laborious post.

OFFICERS. The Court has, for ministerial officers, *Le Procureur du Roi*, or attorney-general; *Le Viconte*, or high sheriff; *L'Avocat du Roi*, or solicitor-general; *Le Greffier*, or clerk, who has the custody of the rolls and records; six pleaders, or solicitors at the bar, styled *Avocats du Barreau*; two under sheriffs, called *Denonciateurs*, because they publish the injunctions of the court; and, *Le Huissier*, or usher, whose office is that of preserving order. To constitute a court there need be present only the bailiff and two jurats, the *Procureur du Roi*, or the *Avocat du Roi*, the *Viconte*, or his deputy, or one of the *Denonciateurs* and the *Greffier*. To these official characters may be added, though not a member of the court, *L'Enregistreur*, or keeper of the register for hereditary contracts. These conveyances of property are passed upon oath before the chief magistrate and two jurats, and are then delivered to *L'Enregistreur*, by whom they are entered: to this register every one may have recourse, no secret or unregistered sale of lands or rents being valid. Of the preceding employments the first three are held by patent; the bailiff has the patronage of all the others.

The court has cognizance of all pleas, suits, and actions, whether real, personal, mixed; or criminal, arising within the island;

island; treason alone excepted. Some other matters are likewise reserved for the King in council, to whom alone this tribunal is immediately subordinate. The courts of Westminster have not any authority in this island; it was not subject to them even before the reign of King John. The governor held the pleas, and, in extraordinary cases, resort was had to Normandy, but never to England.

The laws of Jersey may be comprised under two heads:

1. The ancient custom of Normandy; together with municipal and local usages. These may be compared to the common law of England.

2. Constitutions and ordinances made by different sovereigns; acts passed by the States, and confirmed by His Majesty; together with such rules and orders as have been from time to time transmitted from the council board.

A code of laws was, in 1771, compiled by the States and sanctioned by His Majesty. Though there is but one tribunal, and in that the judges are always the same persons, yet, on account of the great variety and diversity of causes, some requiring one method of proceeding, some another, the court is under the necessity of assuming four distinct characters or denominations; and as it acts respectively under them, is called either *La Cour d'Heritage*, *La Cour de Catel*, *La Cour du Billet*, or *La Cour Extraordinaire* or *du Samedi*.

La Cour d'Heritage admits of none but hereditary matters, as partitions of estate, differences about bounds, intrusions, or trespasses. *La Cour de Catel* is principally for rents and decrees. *La Cour du Billet* is an extraordinary court, chiefly for arrears of rents, and for small debts. *La Cour du Samedi* is another subsidiary court, in which all personal matters are arranged.

POLICE. For the purposes of police, the principal officer in each parish is the constable, under him are two *centeniers*, or hundredors, and an indefinite number of *vinteniers*, and of other inhabitants called *officiers du connetable*; and there are two *Procureurs du bien public*, whose office is to conduct any parochial law-suits.

CRIMINAL LAW. The *Procureur du Roi* is the prosecutor in all matters of this nature. Contrary to the English mode, every accusation is first examined by a petty jury, termed *la petite enquete*, which is composed of the parochial constable, and twelve of his officers. To find a prisoner guilty, seven of these must concur in opinion. Should the party accused disapprove the verdict, he may appeal to a grand jury, called *la grande enquete*, composed of twenty-four persons, taken from the three neighbouring parishes. Though twenty-four is the number which forms *la grande enquete*, more are summoned;

and the person accused may, on substantial grounds; object to any of them; a peremptory challenge is not admitted. Five out of the twenty-four are sufficient to acquit a prisoner. If the supposed culprit cannot afford to employ counsel, the court will direct one of the advocates to plead for him. A prisoner is not, as in the English criminal courts, found guilty or acquitted: the verdict of the jury is either *plutot coupable qu'innocent*, or *plutot innocent que coupable*. When sentence of death is pronounced, the bailiff, or his lieutenant, and the jurors, all of whom were before uncovered, put on their hats; and the criminal kneels to receive his doom. The victim of the law is obliged to walk, from his prison to the place of execution, up a very steep hill. Executions are far from being common in Jersey, and this last stage of legal severity is generally commuted.

ASSEMBLY OF THE STATES. This assembly, as a general council of the island, in some respects resembles a British parliament. It is composed of the twelve jurors, representing the inhabitants of the first class; of the dean, and the other eleven rectors, representing the clergy; and of the twelve constables, as the representatives of their several parishes. The King's procurator, the viscount or sheriff, and the King's Advocate, though they represent no estate, are also admitted, *ex officio*; but they do not vote. The *greffier* of the royal court is likewise, by his office, clerk of the States. The assembly of the States is convened by the bailiff, or his lieutenant, who is the perpetual president. The Governor has, in their meetings, a negative voice. No assembly of the States can be held without at least seven of each corps being present, except on very urgent occasions. Foreigners preferred to benefices are, unless naturalized, excluded. The jurors and the constables are elected by those inhabitants who are masters of families, and who contribute to the insular rates, or assessments. The dean is appointed by the sovereign, who granted the patronage of the rectories to the governor. The principal business is to raise money for the public service. This assembly has also the power of naturalizing foreigners.

ST. HELIER'S. The town of St. Helier's is the seat of the government and of justice: the centre of business, of fashion, and of amusement. It has, in the course of only a few years, made a rapid progress in improvement; and contains between one-fourth and one-third of the whole population of Jersey. Not many years since, the town was composed chiefly of two streets, running in nearly parallel lines: the western entrance was under an old, confined, and ill-contrived prison; this has been taken down, and a new spacious edifice, for the same purpose,

purpose, is just finished, in an airy situation. The principal avenue of the town is a broad street, which, contracted at first, widens as it proceeds toward the square or old market-place. The square forms a general centre; there are leading into it four carriage-ways, and one foot-way; several new streets have been projected in different quarters. Anciently all the houses were substantial stone edifices with small windows; they were consequently gloomy, and most of them were thatched. Now the walls of many are of brick, and even those of former date are in general modernized. The pavement was likewise very uneven; whereas, at present, almost every street has a regular carriage-road, paved with a hard granite, brought from Guernsey, with as broad a flat foot-path on each side as the width will admit. The square is ornamented with a gilt pedestrian statue of George II. in a Roman military costume, elevated on a stone pedestal, and surrounded with a neat iron railing.

On one side of this square is *La Cebue*, or court-house, a solid but plain structure, in which is held the assembly of states, together with the courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction. Government-house has a partial view of the square, and has offices appropriated to public business.

The exposed situation of those who came from the country, to vend their several commodities in the old market-place, induced the inhabitants to erect, on a more eligible spot, a singularly neat and convenient set of covered sheds, with broad open spaces at intervals. The several trades are amply accommodated in separate places, and a plot of ground in the vicinity has been walled in for a cattle-market. There was, in former times, a corn-market, but it no longer exists, as the town is now principally supplied with flour from England, and the country inhabitants consume the greater part of their own produce.

A stream of water from the north, swelled by various tributary rivulets, is, on approaching St. Helier's, separated into different channels, and thus passes through various parts of the town. Many houses are furnished with wells; but in parts of the town lying in a low situation, and on the sea shore, the water is not pure; there are, however, some springs of an excellent quality.

THE CHURCH. The church of St. Helier, consecrated in 1344, partook of the crucial form so common to the Saxon and early Norman churches. It comprises two parallel aisles of equal length, with communicating arches, together with a vestibule, as an addition, at the eastern end. In the centre of the northern and original aisle is a chapel, which constituted

one extremity of the transverse part; that which fronted it is now included in the southern aisle. Over the centre of the northern aisle rises a tower, of no great height, faced with squared masonry, and surmounted with a parapet. The interior exhibits, in every part, the same pointed arch that is found in all the Jersey churches, and the arches of communication are sustained by the same kind of massive columns, though better proportioned than in some of the other churches. There are several monuments, and among others the most distinguished is one in commemoration of the brave Major Pierſon, who fell in repelling the French invasion in 1781.

CHAPELS. Beside the parochial church, there is a chapel for the Wesleyan Methodists, and another for the professors of Calvinism; these are neat and spacious buildings, both recently erected. The Catholics have the privilege of openly celebrating the rites of their persuasion; though hitherto, from pecuniary restrictions, they have not raised a permanent place of worship, but perform their devotions in a hired room.

HOSPITAL. At the western extremity of the town is the public hospital and poor-house for the whole island. This establishment is supported by a fund raised by legacies, by a rate, and by contributions. It was rebuilt in consequence of the former one having been destroyed in 1783, by the explosion of a considerable deposit of gunpowder.

PUBLIC PLACES. At the skirt of the town is a large empty space called *Les Mielles*. It was an assemblage of sandy hillocks, but General Don caused the whole to be levelled, formed into a lawn, and enclosed with a dwarf wall. It is now converted into a parade, and round it runs a gravelled walk, on each side of which trees are planted. There is also a library founded by the Reverend Philip Falle, the venerable historian of the island; several schools for children of both sexes, a chamber of commerce, reading rooms, a small theatre, assemblies in the winter, two hotels, and several taverns.

PACKETS. Three packets are established between St. Helier's and Weymouth. One of these leaves the latter place every Wednesday and Friday evening, unless prevented by contrary winds or boisterous weather. The passage may, on an average, be estimated at sixteen hours, though it has been performed in less than ten. There are likewise three regular traders between St. Helier's and Southampton: this voyage is made in from sixteen to twenty-four hours. Two scouts, or *guarda costas*, are also in constant employ. Besides the packets and regular traders, other vessels occasionally pass over, not only from the ports in England already mentioned, but likewise to and from *Bristol, Poole, Swanage, Lyme*, and other places.

THE

THE NEW PRISON. The old gaol being inconveniently situated, circumscribed in extent, deficient in accommodation, and much dilapidated, a very handsome stone edifice was begun in 1812, and finished in 1815. It is erected on an airy spot at the western extremity of St. Helier, and borders on the sea-shore.

ST. AUBIN'S. The town of St. Aubin is the only one in Jersey, except the capital. It is small, and situated under the long and scarcely undulating range of cliffs that separates its bay from St. Brelade. It consists principally of one street, and though not possessing all the bustle of St. Helier's, it shares some portion of the foreign trade. It is well sheltered from the winds that are most prevalent in the island, and commands a fine and interesting view of the bay, on the border of which it is built. St. Aubin's constitutes part of St. Brelade's parish; but being very distant from the church, a neat chapel has been erected by private subscription. That part of the bay on the edge of which this town is placed bears the name of the Great Road. Near the mouth it has always a depth of water for frigates, though, from being exposed to southerly winds, they seldom remain there during the winter: when gales from that quarter arise, they occasion a heavy swell. The bay is landlocked on every other side; it contains a dangerous funk rock, which was little noticed until a frigate, named the Diamond, struck on it, from which event it has been called the Diamond Rock. Near St. Aubin's a fort, mounting fourteen guns, has been erected on a rock, which, though dry at low water, becomes an islet as the tide rises. From the fort a strong pier projects, within which there is, at new and full moon, a depth of thirty feet; but this is merely a tide harbour. It was built between the years 1673 and 1699. That at St. Helier's was begun immediately afterward. The road from St. Aubin's to St. Helier's, over the sand, when the tide permits, is very pleasant; a new one has been constructed, which is much more elevated, and the prospects from both are greatly diversified.

GUERNSEY.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND POPULATION. The island of Guernsey is situated thirteen miles and a half north-west of Jersey, to the westward of all the other islands, and at a greater distance from the coast of Normandy than any of them. It is in circumference about thirty-nine English miles, measuring the creeks, but exclusive of the little island of Lihou. The extreme

extreme length is more than nine miles, and the breadth exceeds six. It is divided into ten parishes, peopled as follows :

	Population about
St. Sampson's - - -	788
St. Michael in the Vale - -	1,064
St. Philip Torteval - - -	390
St. Saviour - - -	943
St. Margaret of the Forest - -	443
St. Peter of the Wood - - -	1,200
St. Martin - - -	1,265
Our Lady of Deliverance of the Castle, formerly called the Parish of the Grand Sarazin, now called the Catel - -	1,500
St. Andrew - - -	700
St. Peter's Port, or Town Parish -	11,000
	19,293
Sailors and strangers, not permanently settled in the island, calculated to amount, at the least, to - - -	2,000
Together forming a population of about	21,293

NAME. Guernsey is by Antonine, in his Itinerary, called Sarnia, and in some copies of that ancient work, *Sernia*. Camden and other antiquaries have given it different names, but they all, by easy corruptions, resolve themselves into that by which it is now known.

HISTORY. Of the early inhabitants, subsequent history, and established religion of this island, it is unnecessary to speak, after the account already given of Jersey.

GOVERNMENT. The office of governor is of great antiquity, and has evidently existed ever since the Romans were in Gaul. As immediate representatives of the sovereign, they were styled *Comites* and *Duces* when the islands were under the ancient sovereignty of France ; but under the dukes of Normandy and the first English kings, the government of all the islands was usually vested in one person, sometimes called *Dominus*, at others *Ballivus*, and often *Custos Insularum*, Lord Bailiff, or Warden of the Isles. One governor, Henry de Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, in the time of Henry VI., held the government of this isle, together with the Isle of Wight and Jersey, with the title of king. Formerly the civil and military power were both vested in the governor, and then he had the disposal of all places in the courts of justice, church, and garrison ; he was judge as well as governor. In process of time the

the governor transferred the judicial authority to another, who was called *Bailly*, or bailiff; reserving to himself the military government, and retaining the title of governor. But although these posts then became vested in two persons, they were in effect not separated, the governor appointing the bailiff, and all the other officers of justice, who were merely ministers of his will, and in their judicial capacities entirely dependent on him. The inconveniences of this system were first attacked by King John, and removed by Henry VII., who, in Jersey, rendered the bailiff wholly independent of the governor; a salutary regulation, which was followed by Charles II. in this island. But although the governor has no proper jurisdiction, yet his presence is sometimes required in the civil court of justice, for the passing of certain acts which concern the King's service, the safety and government of the island, and the maintenance of the public peace. The court is, in fact, under his immediate protection, and his authority is to be exerted, if necessary, in the execution of its judgments. His power likewise extends even to the arrest and imprisonment of any inhabitant suspected of treasonable practices, but this should be done with the concurrence of two jurats; and formerly no person could pass into or out of the island without his knowledge and privity. And with respect to the influx of strangers, this custom is still strictly preserved; every captain or commandant of a vessel, landing passengers in the island, is, under severe penalties, obliged to make a return of them to the proper officer, and to see that such persons, as soon as conveniently may be after their arrival, personally attend and give an account of themselves. A convention of the states cannot be held, nor any matter transacted therein, without the governor's consent; in which assembly he has a deliberative voice, but no vote; and before his admission to the government he must produce his patent or commission in court, and solemnly swear to maintain the liberties and privileges of the island. The late governors have authority to execute the office by deputy, whom they have been accustomed to appoint; but since the latter end of the reign of Charles II. such deputies or lieutenant-governors are nominated by patent from the crown, or the King's sign manual; and if the lieutenant-governor has occasion to leave the island, he appoints the next senior military officer in command, to act for him in his absence. The governor executing the office by a deputy, or lieutenant-governor, takes the oaths before the privy council of England; the patents are then transmitted, with an order of council certifying such oath to have been taken, and the commissions are then registered among the archives of the royal court. Formerly, by this patent, the
governor

governor had the right of patronage and presentation to the deanery, and all the rectories and schools in the island. He had likewise the nomination and appointment of the offices of bailiff, procureur, comptroller, greffier, and king's serjeant; and, excepting the bailiff, had the power of suspending them for misconduct: but Charles II. a few years before his death, took to himself the disposal of the deanery, and the offices of bailiff, procureur, and comptroller; and they have ever since continued in the crown; the others are still vested in the governor. He has also several high privileges: formerly he was entitled to a certain proportion of provisions; among others, to sixty sheep, to be raised by the constables in the several parishes, and to be delivered to the receiver upon paying three shillings sterling per sheep; a privilege long since given up. But he has still, if he thinks right to claim it, the choice and pre-emption of all provisions in the market, paying after the same rate as such articles are paid for by others. Licences for importation and exportation are issued by him; he has also the care and custody of the castles, fortifications, and defences, of which *Castle Cornet* was formerly the principal, over which the following officers were appointed.

The *Porter* of the castle, who was likewise keeper of the prison. He had fees of prisoners, and out of every stranger's vessel laden with wine, salt, or earthenware, besides a salary of about three shillings per week. Two *boatmen*, the *gayabe*, or *watchman*, who was to stand all day on the dungeon, and when he saw any ship coming near the island was to strike two strokes on a large bell; and when a boat came toward the castle, was to strike once, which is still performed by a sentinel.

Formerly it was the custom to have in *Castle Cornet* fourteen soldiers in time of peace, besides the *lieutenant*, the *marshal*, the *porter*, the *sutler*, the *master gunner*, the *smith*, the *carpenter*, the *boatmen*, and the *watchman*; and in time of war twenty-eight. These soldiers were called the *Castle Retinue*, and were bound to repair thither whenever called upon, especially upon any alarm; but for many years past this practice has been laid aside, and the castle garrisoned by veteran or regular troops from England.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR. His office is already explained.

LEGISLATION. The Norman legislation was vested in the supreme states of the duchy, composed of the duke, or, in his absence, the great seneschal, the justiciars of the exchequer, the dignified clergy, and all the barons and military tenants. A kind of legislative power was also exercised in the different bailiwicks

bailiwicks of the province, in each of which was held an assembly of the states of the district, composed of the bailiff, who presided, the assessors, dignified clergy, and military tenants, but whose resolves were not effective as established laws till sanctioned by the supreme states. The court or bailiwick, then established in the island, consisted of a bailiff and four knights or chevaliers, two of whom were resident, and the other two came annually for the purpose of holding the general assize, when the military tenants attended; and at these assizes, not only the ancient laws were proclaimed, but political ordinances for internal government were proposed, ordered to be immediately observed, and the sanction of the duke, or supreme states of the duchy, obtained as soon as possible, if such ordinances were of sufficient import to require it; those of a trivial nature being renewed from one assize to another.

Whether the royal court, established by King John, then assumed to themselves this legislative power, or it was exercised by the states of the island, as in the other bailiwicks of the duchy, cannot clearly be ascertained. It is evident that the court possessed it before the year 1568.

ASSEMBLY OF THE STATES. This assembly is a general council, composed of the representatives of the people: under this appellation it has been held for many centuries, and its deputies been received by His Majesty, and the lords of his council, upon all appeals and public representations. It is thus composed.

	Members.
The bailiff, (who presides as speaker,) twelve jurats, and procureur - - - - -	14
The eight rectors of the ten parishes, (the Vale and St. Sampson's, the Forest and Torteval being united,) -	8
The two constables in each parish - - - - -	20
The twelve douzainiers in each, excepting the Town parish, St. Peter's Port, wherein there are twenty, and the Vale, having sixteen, making together - -	132
In all -	174

STATES OF ELECTION AND DELIBERATION. The principal business of what is termed the states of election, is the nomination of jurats, and appointment of the prevost, in which every member is entitled to suffrage; but the raising of money is voted by what are called the States of Deliberation. This can be done only on occasional emergencies: for permanent assessments application must be made to the King, and the assessment

assessment is made by fixed proportions, according to ancient custom in the island. In the States of Deliberation are

The bailiff, twelve jurats, and procureur	-	-	14
The eight rectors of the ten parishes	-	-	8
The united voice of constables and douzainiers of each parish	-	-	10

32

Whenever the King's service, or the exigence of the island, requires the assembling of the states of deliberation, the bailiff, with the consent of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief, fixes the day for the convocation of the states, inserts in the writs issued for that purpose, the matters to be deliberated upon. This may be done without the concurrence of the jurats; but by usage, long observed, the bailiff communicates to them in the royal court the day and the matters intended for their deliberation. These writs are prepared by the greffier, signed by the bailiff, and directed to the constables, who are to communicate them to the rector, take the sense of the douzaine of their respective parishes upon the subject specially set forth, and come prepared to give their voice accordingly; for, excepting in the election of magistrates, the douzainiers and constables do not attend individually, but give their assent or dissent collectively in each parish, by which means the votes are compressed into thirty-two, out of which the royal court have in themselves fourteen.

At the assembly of the states of deliberation, a committee is appointed for auditing public accounts, public works are proposed, and deputies appointed to carry over addresses and memorials to His Majesty in council.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAW. The feudal system at one time prevailed strictly in Guernsey, and the law was administered according to its forms. These forms have varied and improved with the times, but the system adopted in England has never been altogether established.

THE ROYAL COURT. The royal court consists of the bailiff and twelve jurats, chosen by the members of the states, the representatives of the people, all serving for life, unless discharged by the King and council. The officers attendant on, or belonging to the court, are the procureur or attorney-general for the island; the comptroller, whose office is similar to that of solicitor-general; these are termed the King's officers; a prevost, or King's sheriff; the greffier or registrar; and the King's serjeant. Ever since the establishment of the royal court, instead of the assizes being held annually, as had been

been the custom, the bailiff and jurats have administered justice three times in a week during term time, and once a week out of term; and even oftener when necessity required.

There are three terms in a year, which open the first Monday after the 15th January, the first Monday after Easter, and the first Monday after the 29th September; and each continues six weeks. The sixteen military tenants are obliged to attend the chief pleas, or opening of the terms, as are also the thirteen bordiers. This service, and a fine of sixty sols (four shillings and three pence,) when the property of the fief is changed, are all the military tenants are now subject to. They are not, as formerly, members of the states.

On the first day or opening of each term, called the chief plaids or capital pleas, bye-laws or ordinances are made, which have the immediate effect of law; but such ordinances as do not receive the royal approbation, and if represented in their strongest light, are only equal in force to bye-laws made by corporations in England.

For the ordinary course of business four jurats in rotation attend in each term, during which there are eight or ten court-days for hearing causes in the first instance, when two jurats, with the bailiff or his deputy, (who must ever be present to compose a court,) are sufficient: this court is called *Cour Ordinaire*. If the parties are dissatisfied, they appeal to a court of more jurats, termed *Cour d'Appeaux*; and from thence to the *Court of Judgments*, where at least seven jurats must be present. This court is held three times in each term; and if even the bailiff and all the twelve jurats are in court at the second hearing, an appeal lies to the Court of Judgments, where a less number may happen to preside; and from this Court of Judgments only, appeals, under certain restrictions, are made to His Majesty in council. But if at the first hearing of a cause, five jurats should be present, the appeal is made to the Court of Judgments directly.

The *Mobilaire Courts* are held on the Monday, in which pleas are determined for moveables or chattels, the parishes being divided into districts; the low parishes, viz. St. Peter's Port, St. Sampson's, and the Vale; and the high parishes, comprising the remainder, occupying the alternate Mondays.

On the Tuesdays following the Monday's court for the low parishes, judgments or final decrees are given; and on the Tuesdays next after the court for the high parishes, courts of heritage are held, termed *Plaids d'Heritage*, for the determination of all suits relative to inheritance. The Tuesday's courts were formerly called *Des Namps*, from *namier*, an old French

French word signifying to distrain, and were set apart for the determination of all causes relating to seizures or distresses.

The Saturday's courts are for the passing of contracts, Admiralty causes, and criminal informations; the other intermediate days, in or out of term, being devoted to the hearing of causes in general. But the Saturday's courts for criminal causes last from the chief pleas of Easter to the middle of July; from Michaelmas to Christmas; and from the 15th of January to the Saturday before the holy week.

The bailiff or his lieutenant, who must preside at all the courts, sums up the evidence, and comments on the nature of the cause, but has nevertheless no voice in the decision. He then takes the opinion of the jurats in rotation; and if the number present should be equally divided in their judgment, he decides the controversy by a casting vote; all matters in litigation being determined by majority, and not by unanimity, as in England.

If the party dissatisfied is refused an appeal in the island, he may, by what is termed a *doléance*, or *plaint de grief*, apply for redress to His Majesty in council; and in like manner may complain, if refused his appeal from judgment to council. But in the latter case, the matter in dispute must be of the value of forty pounds in chattel interest, or forty shillings estate of inheritance, or an appeal cannot be claimed.

No appeal whatever can be made in criminal causes, and the bailiff and jurats are empowered to proceed to condemnation and execution, except in cases of treason, coining, and the laying injurious hands on the person of the bailiff or any of the jurats. All trials are in French, at least in the local language of the island.

PRIVILEGES.—The privileges of the island of Guernsey may be considered under two distinct heads, those of Norman origin before the conquest, and those derived from charters since. As Norman subjects, they still enjoy the privileges of being governed by the ancient laws of that Duchy, sanctioned and approved by the British monarchs, or Dukes of Normandy. By grants or charters, they are admitted in England to all the privileges of British-born subjects; the authority of parliament to legislate is on the same footing as in Jersey, nor can the writs of the British courts extend to these islands, except those of the Admiralty court—the orders of His Majesty in council being the only authority to which they owe obedience. The charter granted by King John, which is considered as the Magna Charta of the island, was confirmed and extended by many succeeding sovereigns, and particularly by Queen Elizabeth. That princess granted that the islanders

should be freed from all tributes, tolls, contributions, and exactions throughout England; confirmed their ancient privileges of free navigation and commerce, and not only within the islands and maritime places, and all around the same, but at such spaces and distances from the islands as the sight of man goes to, or the eye of man reaches. This extraordinary privilege of neutrality exists no longer; but the Queen also confirmed the ancient laws and customs, granting to the bailiffs, jurats, magistrates, and officers of justice, their wonted extent of jurisdiction. By these charters, too, throughout the king's dominions and territories, *citra vel ultra mare*, the natives are to be treated, not *tanquam alienigenæ*, as foreigners and aliens, but *tanquam indigenæ*, as native Englishmen; but an Englishman is considered as a foreigner, shut out from the common immunities of the island, and subject as it were to distinct laws, his person being liable to arrest for the most trivial sum (less than sixpence), and his bail, though of known sufficiency, objectionable; whilst, on the contrary, a native or admitted inhabitant, possessing even no more than a single bushel of wheat rent, is not only privileged from arrest, but unexceptionable surety to almost any amount.

COMMERCE AND REVENUE. Although the productions of Guernsey are not sufficient for the support of its inhabitants, yet industry, and the privileges before alluded to, have given her a thriving and profitable foreign commerce. The revenue consists of the general taxes, the harbour dues, the duties levied yearly upon licensed victuallers or retailers of liquors, and the produce of lotteries; which, without overburthening the people by excessive taxation, afford ample provision for every necessity.

PRODUCTIONS. The animal, mineral, or vegetable produce of the island is not much entitled to notice. Timber, it is observed, is of slow growth, not very luxuriant or lofty; the hedges are mostly composed of furze, sown on raised banks of green sward or turf, which makes an excellent fence, both profitable and useful. The orchards, chiefly of apple-trees, are likewise very productive, and a great quantity of cider is made and consumed in the island: indeed, most kinds of fruit, especially raspberries, strawberries, currants, gooseberries, plums, cherries, grapes, figs, peaches, nectarines, and apricots, grow in great abundance; and so congenial is the clime for what are termed hot-house or green-house plants, that most of them thrive well, unprotected by art; and myrtles and geraniums stand out all the year planted in the open ground. Even orange-trees, with but little winter shelter, will fructify; and melons are raised under hand glasses, like cucumbers in

England. The fig-tree attains great luxuriance in these islands. Indeed, vegetation in general thrives abundantly; and although the sun sheds a powerful influence, it is so tempered with the cooling breezes of the sea, that the heat is by no means sultry or oppressive. The winters are rather wet than cold: intense frost is unknown, and snow seldom lies more than a day or two; yet insects are not more numerous than elsewhere, nor does the heat of the sun nourish venomous reptiles; neither snake, adder, viper or toad, is to be found throughout the island; the blind worm is now and then to be seen, and some few lizards, perfectly harmless, are to be found in the furze lands. The island is well watered with small rivulets and springs, and the lands which produce furze are perhaps as profitable as any other for fuel, as neither wood nor coppice is to be seen. The island is entirely destitute of game of every description, and the sportsman is obliged to content himself with the slaughter of rabbits, blackbirds, larks, and thrushes: in the season, woodcocks, snipes, and fieldfares, are tolerably plentiful; but, although surrounded by the ocean, sea fowl are not very numerous, nor easily approached within gun-shot. Most of the feathered songsters, which ornithologists term British birds, either migratory or stationary, are at times seen in this island; but the nightingale seldom or never makes its appearance, though in the neighbouring island of Jersey, which is more woody, it is not uncommon. Environed by a rocky sea, a great variety of fish is taken in abundance; and formerly most of the religious houses in Normandy were supplied from this island.

MANNERS AND SOCIETY. The country people, in their lives and manners, exhibit a rude state of native simplicity, which might be expected in a continental interior with little or no intercourse with civilized society, and not in a small island like this, so nearly connected with Great Britain and the neighbouring shores of France. They are in fact more than a century behind the generality of Europe, which may be accounted for, in some measure, by the little friendly intercourse subsisting among the natives themselves, the more enlightened seldom associating even with rustic independence but in the most distant and reserved manner; and the descendant of a jurat, douzainier, or constable, will not associate with the merchant or tradesman, however opulent and respectable. The uncommonly minute division of property provides a sort of independent subsistence for a greater number of persons than can be well imagined; and a mediocrity, rather bordering upon poverty, seems to prevail throughout the country. Superstition has been very prevalent. Between the years 1598 and 1634,

no less than nine women and two men were burnt for forcery; witches and ghosts still alarm the ignorant and credulous; and certain old women have the credit of supernatural powers over man and beast. Witch finders, with sovereign antidotes to destroy their magic spells, have been lately published by the Royal Court; and a house for some years remained untenanted, from a ridiculous story of its being haunted. A supernatural chimera, called the *Bete-la-twa*, is said at Christmas to make nightly perambulations about the town, creating great terror, and furnishing infinite resources to fancy and credulity.

The old Norman French, corrupted rather than improved, is generally spoken; indeed, few of the country people discourse in English, and not many of the more enlightened have yet attained the true English pronunciation. The generality of the natives have the appearance and manners of French rather than English people. Poor and parsimonious in their living and dress, even their domestic utensils and implements of husbandry are all in the French style. The habit of sending young females of the higher circles to England for education must diminish the effect of these habits; but, perhaps, a total change is not soon, if at all, to be expected.

ALDERNEY.

THE Island of Alderney, which lies to the north-east of Guernsey about six leagues, and scarcely seven miles west from Cape la Hogue, measures in length from north-east to south-west nearly four miles, and in breadth not more than one mile and a half, the whole circumference being about ten miles. It shelves to the north-east, intersected by deep valleys, bounded on the southern and western sides by cliffs, intersected with small bays; the rocky scenery being both picturesque and strikingly grand.

GOVERNMENT. The civil jurisdiction of the island is exercised by a judge and six jurats, the former nominated by the governor, and the latter elected by the commonalty, holding their several appointments for life, unless removed for misbehaviour or malversation in office. These, with the King's officers, namely, the King's procureur or attorney-general, the King's comptroller or solicitor-general, and the greffier or register, also nominated by the governor, compose the court. But their decisions are not definitive; the island being considered as a dependence of Guernsey, appeal may be made to the royal court there, and from thence to the King in council: and in all criminal cases, the court of Alderney has only the power of receiving evidence, which is transmitted to the superior

court of Guernsey, where judgment is pronounced on the offender, and the sentence of the law executed.

The judge and six jurats, together with the douzaine or douzainiers, being twelve men chosen by the commonalty as representatives, compose the assembly of the States, wherein all ordinances for the good government of the island are proposed. But it appears that the douzaine have only a deliberative voice, and no vote; the judge and jurats alone decide as to the expediency of any measure proposed. The governor or his lieutenant must ever be present at such meeting, but has likewise no vote.

PROPERTY. By the last extent of the crown, made in the reign of James I., in 1607, it appears that the island of Alderney was then in His Majesty's hands, who was entitled to the *amendes* or perquisites of the courts, the treiziemes upon the sales of lands, the wreck, and other princely rights and regalties; but it has since been granted in fee-farm to several tenants; and his present Majesty, by letters patent, bearing date the 14th December, 1763, in consideration of the surrender of the former lease or patent, which had then become vested in John Le Mesurier, Esq. (the grandfather of the present possessor), and for other considerations therein mentioned, gave and granted the island to the said John Le Mesurier, his executors, administrators, and assigns, for the term of ninety-nine years, at a yearly rent of thirteen shillings, with a proviso for resumption and making void the lease at any time, "upon payment to the said John Le Mesurier, his executors, administrators, or assigns, of such sum or sums of money as he had then disbursed, or that should thereafter be disbursed or laid out in building improvement upon the mansion-house, called the governor's house, and other the premises, to be ascertained by six or more of the lords or other of the privy council."

PRESENT STATE. Only about one half of this island is in a state of cultivation, the remainder is common and furze lands, with good feed for sheep, but rather too short for cattle. The soil is naturally good, and the agriculture much the same as in Guernsey. The whole island has but a barren appearance; few trees, and no hedges, are to be seen, the enclosures being fenced with loose stone walls and furze banks.

There still exists part of a castle begun by the Earl of Essex in Queen Elizabeth's time, but never finished, the ruinous foundation of which still retains that favourite's name. The little island of Burhou, lying to the westward, is not inhabited, but used as a rabbit-warren by the governor.

The pier is but of rude structure, with only one projecting arm to shelter vessels from the north-east. The whole island is beset with rocks, or rather forms part of a long chain, extending to the Caskets, whereon a light-house has been erected
with

with revolving reflectors. On this dangerous part of the coast the young prince, son of Henry I., was shipwrecked and lost. The strait which divides the island from Cape *La Hogue*, called by the French "*le Ras de Blanchart*," and by us the Race of Alderney, is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet, and which at spring tides run with the rapidity of six knots an hour; and what is termed the *Swinge*, the passage on the other side of the island, is a place no less dangerous.

There are about two hundred and eighty dwelling-houses in the island, and the population is computed to be nearly thirteen hundred persons.

SERK.

THIS little island lies about six miles to the eastward of Guernsey, is one of its dependencies, and immediately under its jurisdiction; it is rather more than three miles in length, and scarcely a mile in average breadth: at one part, called the *Coupée*, it is nearly divided into two portions, being connected only by a high and narrow ridge not many yards in width. It was granted by Queen Elizabeth in fee-farm, by letters patent, dated 6th August, 1565, to Philip de Carteret, Esq. (as a reward for his services in the retaking it from the French,) by the twentieth part of a knight's fee, amounting, as appears by the extent of James I., to fifty sols sterling, payable to the king's receiver at Guernsey, at Michaelmas only. The fief or feigniory is now in the possession of John Le Pelley, Esq., who holds his feudal court, from which appeals are made to the royal court of Guernsey.

Unlike the islands of Guernsey, Alderney, and Jersey, which are of wedge form, shelving on one side, Serk is a table land, rising some little toward the west, but having no declivity to the sea at any part, excepting a trifling descent at the northern extremity. The surrounding cliffs, measuring from one to two hundred feet in height, are so very abrupt on the western side, that the largest ships may approach very near without danger, but the eastern shore is beset with ridges of rocks running far out into the sea. The rocky scenery is here very picturesque and grand; that of the *port des Moulins*, in particular, the descent to which is through a narrow pass, uncommonly wild and romantic. Such is the natural defence of the island, that although there are five landing places, except at what is called the *Creux*, where a tunnel was cut in 1588, by one of the De Carterets, through the rock, there is scarcely any entrance to be found without the difficulty of climbing. The nearest landing to Guernsey is that of *Havre Gosselin*, which is formed

between the land and the little *Isle des Marchands* on the western side. The high ridge or isthmus which joins the main island to that of *Petit Serk*, is about three hundred yards in length, with a precipice immediately to the sea on the eastern side, and over broken rocks and rubbish on the western, of terrific appearance, being scarcely five or six feet wide in some places. It is said that a copper mine was worked here about a century ago; but as no trace of it is now to be seen, its existence is scarcely possible, though copper and other ores are frequently found in the kind of rock which abounds in this island.

ERM OR HERM AND JETHOU.

THE two smaller islands of Herm and Jethou, lying eastward of Guernsey about three miles, are separated from each other by a narrow strait. They were both in the king's hands at the time of the last extent (James I.), and held by the governor, for the feeding of deer, cattle and sheep, and were then valued to be letten for a term of years in fee-farm; the former at thirty livres sterling per annum, and the latter at one hundred sols. They have both been since granted in fee-farm, Herm at the rent of fourteen pounds sterling, renewable every twenty-one years upon the payment of forty-two pounds, and Jethou at a rent of about fifty shillings.

THE SCILLY ISLANDS.

THE Scilly, or Silley Islands, lie due west from the Lizard about seventeen leagues; west-and-by-south from the Old Land's End, nearest Mount's Bay, at the distance of ten leagues; and from the Western Land's End they lie west-south-west at the distance of something more than nine leagues. The importance of these islands arises from their advantageous situation, as looking equally into St. George's and the English Channel. For this reason, most ships bound from the southward strive to make the Scilly Islands, in order to steer their course with greater certainty. It is very convenient also for vessels to take shelter amongst them, which prevents them from being driven to Milford Haven, nay, sometimes into some port in Ireland, if the wind is strong at east; or, if it blows hard at north-west, from being forced back into some of the Cornish harbours, or even on the French coasts. If the wind should not be very high, yet if unfavourable or unsteady, as between the channels often happens, it is better to put into Scilly than

to beat about at sea in bad weather. In time of war, their utility is still more considerable.

With these observations, all power of descanting on their importance is exhausted. They are said to be one hundred and forty-five in number; but if they have been correctly counted, it has been merely for the sake of exactness, as only five or six are inhabited, and not many are even named. It is confidently said, and repeated by many writers, that these rocks are the Cassiterides of the Greeks, but Mr. Pinkerton derides the opinion: they are also said to have been called Hesperides and Cestrymenides.

Of the inhabited islands the most considerable is *St. Mary's*, which is said to be two miles and a half in length, one and a half in breadth, and less than ten in compass, with a castle and a garrison. *Trescow*, formerly called *St. Nicholas*, lies directly north of *St. Mary's*, and is said to be half its size; it has the remains of an abbey. *St. Martin's* is about the size of *Trescow*, from which it is distant about a mile; it was at one time totally deserted. *St. Agnes* has also the name of the *Light Island*, from the light-house, which is its principal ornament and support. It is a fine column, built with stone from the foundation to the lanthorn, which is fifty-one feet high; the gallery four; the flash-lights eleven feet and a half high, three feet two inches wide, and sixteen in number. The floor of the lanthorn is of brick, upon which stands a substantial iron grate, square, barred on every side, with one great chimney in the canopy roof, and several lesser ones, to let out the smoke; and a large pair of smith's bellows are so fixed, as to be easily used whenever there is occasion. Upon the whole, it is a noble and commodious structure, and being plastered white, is an useful day-mark to ships coming from the southward. *Brebar* lies north-west of *St. Mary's*, and to the west of *Trescow*, to which, when the sea is very low, they sometimes pass over the sand. *Sansom Island* is said to contain one family. The latest authorities people these islands with about one thousand inhabitants. More than two thousand acres are said to be used for agricultural purposes. The small craft employed in fishing, and as pilots, may probably exceed three hundred tons. Sheep and rabbits are produced in abundance; some cattle and small horses, also poultry and vegetables; but the principal resource of the islanders is in the manufacture of kelp.

GIBRALTAR.

GIBRALTAR is situated in Andalusia, the most southern province of Spain. The rock is seven miles in circumference, forming a promontory three miles long, and is joined to the continent by an isthmus of low sand: the southern extremity lies in $36^{\circ} 2' 30''$ N. lat., and in $5^{\circ} 15'$ W. long. from the meridian of London.

Historians, from very early periods, have noticed Gibraltar, or *Mons Calpe*, by a well-known mythological fiction, denominating it, and *Mons Abyla*, on the opposite coast of Africa, the *Pillars of Hercules*. It does not, however, appear that the hill was ever inhabited by the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, or Romans, who in the first ages of navigation visited the bay, and built cities in its neighbourhood; or that it ever engaged the attention of those intrepid and successful barbarians, who so violently subverted the Roman empire, and established a new government in Spain. It began to be remarkable for the natural strength of its situation in the beginning of the eighth century, when the Saracens (then become a powerful nation in the east, and along the coast of Africa,) invaded Spain, and soon after made themselves masters of the whole country.

The Gothic kingdom, which had existed in Spain for 300 years, was, before the invasion of the Saracens, distracted with intestine divisions: the nation was become effeminate, neglecting the military discipline of their ancestors; and their monarch, Roderic, a profligate prince, not a little accelerated their ruin, by ravishing the daughter of Count Julian. This nobleman, who possessed great power and influence, and was governor of Ceuta in Africa, found means, in 711, to facilitate an invasion by the Saracens. Tarif Ebn Zarcas, who commanded the invading force, determined to secure an intercourse with Africa, by establishing a post on the coast; and preferring the strong natural situation of *Mons Calpe*, gave orders to erect a castle on the face of the hill, which might answer the original purpose, and also cover his retreat, in case he should be unfortunate in his operations. The superior part of this once magnificent pile at present remains, and an inscription over the principal gate fixed the period of its being finished about the year 725.

Tarif, leaving a garrison at the foot of *Mons Calpe*, (which was now called by the Saracens, in compliment to their general, *Gibel Tarif*, or the Mountain of Tarif, and thence Gibraltar,) marched into the country, surprised many towns, and
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vanquishing King Roderic in a pitched battle near Xeres in Andalusia, gained possession of the whole kingdom.

While the Moors retained possession of any part of Spain, Gibraltar was frequently besieged, and generally successfully defended; but in 1642, when the Moorish power was in the wane, a civil war breaking out in Grenada, great part of the garrison of Gibraltar was withdrawn, to assist one of the competitors for the crown: the governor of Tarifa, learning this fact, assembled an army from the neighbouring garrisons, and besieged Gibraltar, which, after a brave defence, surrendered; the Duke de Medina Sidonia deemed the conquest of such importance as to travel express, that he might have the honour of granting the capitulation.

Henry IV., of Castile and Leon, overjoyed at wresting from the Mahometans a place they had held 748 years, added it to his royal titles, and gave it for arms, *gules*, a castle, with a key pendent to the gate, *or*, (alluding to its being the key to the Mediterranean,) which arms have ever since been continued. In 1704 it was wrested (probably for ever) from the dominion of Spain, by the English, under Sir George Rooke. This admiral had been sent into the Mediterranean, with a strong fleet, in the spring, to assist Charles, Archduke of Austria, in obtaining the crown of Spain; but his instructions being limited, nothing of importance was done. Sensible of the reflections that would fall on him, for being inactive with so powerful an armament, by advice of a council of war, on the 21st of July, 1704, he disembarked on the isthmus 1800 men, English and Dutch, commanded by the Prince of Hesse D'Armstadt. The garrison was summoned, but the governor refusing to surrender, preparations were made for the attack. By day-break on the 23d, the ships appointed to cannonade the town, under Admirals Byng and Vanderdussen, with those that were destined to batter the new mole, commanded by Captain Hicks, were at their several stations. The admiral made the signal to begin the cannonade, which was performed with great vivacity and effect, so that the enemy, in five or six hours, were driven from their guns, especially from the mole head. The admiral, considering that by gaining that fortification the town might sooner be reduced, ordered Captain Whitaker, with the armed boats, to possess himself of it; but Captains Hicks and Jumper, who lay next the mole, pushed ashore with their pinnaces, before the rest came up; whereupon the Spaniards sprung a mine, which blew up the fortifications, killed two lieutenants and forty men, and wounded sixty. The assailants nevertheless kept possession of the work, and being joined by Captain Whitaker, advanced and took a small bastion,

bastion, half way between the mole and the town. The Marquis de Salines, who was governor, being again summoned, thought proper to capitulate; hostages were exchanged, and the Prince of Hesse, on the 24th, took possession of the gates.

The courts of Madrid and Paris, concerned at the loss of so important a fortress, and considering its recovery of the last consequence to the cause, ordered the Marquis de Villadarias, a grandee of Spain, to besiege it. His attempt, although pursued with great vigour and ably supported, failed. In subsequent wars other sieges were formed, without success, but none so memorable as that which began in the summer of 1779, and ended in September 1782, in the complete defeat of the French and Spaniards and the destruction of their formidable preparations. The defence of the fortress on this occasion confers immortal honour on General Elliot, afterward Lord Heathfield.

DESCRIPTION. The promontory, or rock, at the foot of which stands the town, is upwards of 1300 feet in height; projecting into the sea several miles from the continent, to which it is connected by an isthmus of low sand. This appearance makes it not improbable that *Mons Calpe* has in former ages been totally surrounded by the sea. The north front of the peninsula, which presents itself to the main land, is of various heights. The breadth of the isthmus at the foot of the rock is about 900 yards; but it grows considerably wider toward the country. Across this isthmus (which, with Gibraltar and the opposite coast, forms the bay,) the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line at about a mile's distance from the garrison, extending 1700 yards, and embracing both shores: a fort of masonry is erected at each extremity, mounting twenty-three or twenty-four guns each; they are of different constructions, and are called St. Philip and St. Barbara. The former of these forts commands the best and the usual anchoring place of our shipping and small craft, and by forming a cross fire with Fort St. Barbara, on the neutral ground, prevents all communication between the garrison and the country. The rock is separated by a ridge from north to south, dividing it into two unequal parts. The western front or division is a gradual slope, interspersed with precipices; but the opposite side, looking to the Mediterranean, and the north front, facing the Spanish lines, are both naturally very steep, and totally inaccessible. It is this peculiar circumstance which forms the chief strength of Gibraltar.

The town is built at the foot of the north-west face of the hill, and is fortified in an irregular manner. The communication

cation with it from the isthmus is by a long narrow causeway, (serving as a dam to an inundation,) which is defended by a curtain, with two bastions, mounting twenty-six pieces of cannon, a dry ditch, covered way, and glacis well mined. These, with the causeway, are warmly flanked by the King's, Queen's, and Prince's lines: works cut in the rock with immense labour, and scarped to be almost inaccessible. Above the lines are the batteries at Willis's, and others at different heights, until they crown the summit of the rock, where several batteries are erected for cannon and mortars. These batteries, the lowest of which is upwards of 400 feet above the neutral ground, mount between fifty and sixty pieces of heavy ordnance, and entirely command the isthmus below. Exclusive of what are here mentioned, additional works of a singular nature were projected in 1782, and partly executed the year following, which when finished will render Gibraltar (almost) impregnable in that quarter. The old mole, to the west of the grand battery, forms also a very formidable flank, and, with the lines, a cross-fire on the causeway and neutral ground. This battery has been found so great an annoyance to the besiegers, that by way of distinction it has long been known under the appellation of the *Devil's Tongue*. Indeed, the ordnance in the lines upon the grand battery and the old mole altogether exhibit so formidable an appearance to a spectator on the causeway, that the entrance into the garrison is called by the Spaniards the *mouth of fire*. From the grand battery along the sea-line looking toward the bay, the town is defended by the North, Montague's, Prince of Orange's, King's and South bastions; the line wall or curtains between which mount many cannon and mortars. The King's bastion is a very complete piece of fortification, commanding the bay from New to Old Mole Heads, and mounting twelve thirty-two pounders, and four ten inch howitzers in front, ten guns and howitzers on its flanks, and has casemates for eight hundred men, with kitchens and ovens for cooking. Montague's is much smaller, mounts only twelve pieces of cannon, but has a casemate for two hundred men, communicating with the Old Mole. In 1782 the engineers began a cavalier upon this bastion for two guns; but it was not finished till after the grand attack in September. Another work of this nature was likewise erected in the beginning of the blockade for five guns, on the north bastion of the grand battery. The town on the sea line is not less protected by natural defences than by fortifications. A shoal of sharp rocks extends along the front far into the bay,

bay, and prevents ships of large burthen from approaching very near the walls.

From the south bastion (which is considerably higher than the rest of the works, in order to protect the town from the eminences on the red sands,) a curtain extends up the face of the hill, and concludes, at an inaccessible precipice, the works of the town. In this curtain is the south port gate, before which and the south bastion is the dry ditch, with a covered way and glacis. At the east end, on the declivity of the hill, above the gate, is a large flat bastion, connected with the curtain, and mounting thirteen guns, bearing on the bay, &c. This work is covered by a demi-bastion that joins the precipice. Above the precipice an old Moorish wall is continued to the ridge of the rock; in the front of which a curtain with loop-holes and redans (built in the reign of the Emperor Charles V. and called after his name) extends to the top, effectually cutting off all communication in that quarter. Between the Moorish and Charles the Fifth's walls is the signal house; whence the guard, on a serene and clear day, have almost an unbounded view of the Mediterranean, and can just observe a part of the Atlantic ocean over the Spanish mountains.

Such is the account given by Colonel Drinkwater of the fortifications of the town. From the south bastion, he adds, a line wall is continued along the beach to the new mole, where an irregular fort is erected, mounting twenty-six guns. This line wall is divided by a small bastion of eight guns; and in its rear is a retired work, called the Princess of Wales's lines, in which are several strong batteries for the sea. Near the south bastion, though without the town, is a wharf called Ragged Staff, where supplies for the garrison are usually landed, being convenient from its vicinity to the victualling office and stores. The communication to this quay is by spiral wooden stairs, and a drawbridge opening into the covert way, in front of which is a small work of masonry mounting two guns. At the foot of the stairs is the basin, where shipping take in water. Two tanks are also appropriated to this purpose near the eight gun bastion, having a connection with the grand aqueduct.

In the New Mole there is a depth of water sufficient for a ship of the line to lie alongside the wharf and heave down. At the mole head is a circular battery for heavy metal, joined to the New Mole fort by a strong wall, fraised, having a banquet for musquetry, with two embrasures opening toward the bay. This mole, with the old mole at Waterport, were built for the accommodation of trading vessels: the former however is generally occupied by men of war; and the latter, not
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having more than six feet at low water, only admits small craft to the wharfs: merchantmen of large burthen are obliged therefore to anchor about half or three quarters of a mile from Waterport, in seven or eight fathoms. But in time of war this anchorage is commanded by the Spanish forts: they are consequently, in case of a rupture with Spain, under the necessity of removing to the southward of the New Mole, where the ground is so rocky and foul, that they are often in imminent danger during the strong southerly winds. From the New Mole fort to the north end of Rosia Bay, the rock is difficult of access; nevertheless a parapet is continued, and batteries are erected, as situations dictate. The works at Rosia are strong, and act as flanks to each other. They are close along the beach, which is low, and have a retired battery of eight guns in their rear.

The rock continues to ascend from the south point of Rosia Bay, by Parson's Lodge (behind which, upon an eminence, is a new battery, *en barbet*, on traversing carriages,) to Campguard, and Buena Vista, so called from the beautiful prospect of the bay, and neighbouring kingdoms of Barbary and Spain, which is there presented to a spectator. A line wall is raised, notwithstanding the rock being inaccessible, with cannon at different distances. At Buena Vista there are several guns *en barbet*, which have great command; and the hill towards Europa is slightly fortified, which gives it the appearance, at a distance, of an old castle repaired. The rock then descends by the Devil's Bowling-green, so named from the irregularity of its surface, to Little Bay. At this post, which is totally surrounded with precipices, there is a barbet battery, flanking the works to the New Mole: thence the rock continues naturally steep for a considerable distance, when the line wall and batteries recommence, and extend in an irregular manner to Europa Point, the southern extremity of the garrison, though not the southern point of Europe. The rock from this point is regularly perpendicular to Europa advance, where a few batteries and a post at the Cave-guard terminate the works. The fortifications along the sea line at Europa do not, however, constitute the principal strength of the garrison. The retired and inaccessible lines of Windmill-hill have great command, and being situated within musquet-shot of the sea, are very formidable and of great consequence in that quarter.

Since the publication of Colonel Drinkwater's interesting and valuable history, numerous additional works have been constructed to ensure the safety of this possession, which, in every war in which Spain takes a part against Great Britain, is likely to be an object of determined contest.

THE TOWN. The town is built on a bed of red sand, similar to those eminences without South Port, which originally extended to the foot of the ascent to the south barracks. The buildings, before the town was destroyed in the last siege, were composed of different materials, principally of tapia, which is a cement consisting of mortar, made of sand, lime, and small pebbles, which being well tempered, and wrought together in a frame, acquires great strength and solidity. Since the English have been in possession of Gibraltar, many have been built of the rock stone, plastered and painted on the outside to break the powerful rays of the sun, which otherwise would be too glaring, and prejudicial to the eyes. The modern houses were in general covered with tiles; but the flat terraced roofs remained in those erected by the Spaniards, and in some, the mirandas or towers, whence the inhabitants, without removing from home, had a beautiful and extensive prospect of the neighbouring coasts.

Of the buildings that deserve notice, the old Moorish castle is the most conspicuous. The ruins of a mosque, or place of worship, can be traced within the walls; as also a neat morisque court, and reservoir for water; but the latter cannot, without great difficulty, be discovered by a stranger. A large tower on the south-east wall is said to have been erected by the Saracens, on their first invading Spain; and the present venerable remains are incontestable proofs of its former magnificence. The other principal buildings are the convent, or governor's quarters; the lieutenant-governor's house, which is a modern structure; the Admiralty-house, formerly a monastery of white friars; the soldiers' barracks, the victualling-office, and store-house. Beside these, there are the Spanish church, the Atarafana, or galley-house, and some other buildings, formerly of note, but ruined by the fire of the Spaniards during the great siege. At the southward are the south barracks and the navy hospital. There are also some other Moorish remains.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. The hill abounds in cavities, that serve as receptacles for the rain. None, however, is so singular as St. George's Cave on the side of the hill, in a line with the south barracks, about 1,100 feet above the level of the sea. At the entrance are the remains of a strong wall. The mouth is only five feet wide; but on descending a slope of earth it expands considerably; and, with the assistance of torches, the openings of several smaller caves are discovered. The outer cave is about two hundred feet long, and ninety broad. The top appears to be supported by pillars of vast magnitude, formed by the perpetual droppings of petrifying water, the whole bearing great resemblance to the inside of a gloomy

Gothic cathedral. The several gradations in the progress of these petrifications are easily discoverable. In some may be observed small capitals, descending from the roof, whilst proportionable bases rise underneath: others again are formed of very small diameter; and a third class, immensely large, seem to support the roof of this wonderful cavern. Almost all strangers who visit Gibraltar are conducted to view this cave; and numbers, with the assistance of ropes and torches, have attempted to explore the depth; but after descending about five hundred feet, they have been obliged to return, by the gross vapours which issued from beneath. There are several other caves on different parts of the hill, in which the water possesses the same petrifying qualities. One under Middle-hill is called Pocoroca.

Among the natural curiosities of Gibraltar, the petrified bones discovered in the cavities of the rocks have attracted great attention. These bones are not found in one particular part, but in various places at a considerable distance from each other. From the rocks near Rosia Bay (without the line wall) great quantities of this curious petrification have been collected and sent home for the inspection of naturalists. Some of the bones are of large diameter; and, being broken with the rock, the marrow is easily to be distinguished.

ANIMALS. The hill is remarkable for the number of apes about its summit, which are said not to be found in any other part of Spain. They breed in inaccessible places, and frequently appear in large droves, with their young upon their backs. Red-legged partridges are often found in coveys; woodcocks and teal are sometimes seen; and wild rabbits are caught about Europa and Windmill-hill. Eagles and vultures annually visit Gibraltar from Barbary, in their way to the interior parts of Spain. The former breed in the craggy parts of the rock, and, with the hawk, are often seen towering round its summit. Musquitoes are exceedingly troublesome toward the close of summer; and locusts are sometimes found. The scorpion, centipes, and other venomous reptiles, abound amongst the rocks and old buildings; and the harmless green lizard and snake are frequently caught by the soldiers, who, after drawing their teeth, treat them with every mark of fondness.

FOOD. Gibraltar being nearly surrounded by the sea is exceedingly well supplied with fish: the John Doree, turbot, soal, salmon, hake, rock-cod, mullet, and ranger, with great variety of less note, are caught along the Spanish shore, and in different parts of the bay. Mackarel are also taken in vast numbers during the season, and shell-fish are sometimes brought

brought from the neighbouring parts. The Moors, in times of peace, supply the garrison with ox-beef, mutton, veal, and poultry, on moderate terms; and from Spain they procure pork, which is remarkable for its sweetness and flavour. Fruits, such as melons, oranges, green figs, grapes, and pomegranates are brought in abundance from Barbary and Portugal; and the best wines are at very reasonable prices.

CLIMATE. The inhabitants breathe a temperate and wholesome air for most part of the year. The summer months of June, July, and August are excessively warm, with a perpetually serene and clear sky: the heat is however allayed by a constant refreshing breeze from the sea, which usually sets in about ten in the forenoon, continuing till almost sunset; and, from its invigorating and agreeable coolness, is emphatically called the Doctor. The cold in winter is not so excessive as in the neighbouring parts of the country. Snow falls but seldom, and ice is a rarity; yet the Grenadian mountains in Spain, and the lofty hills in Africa, have snow lying on them for several months. Heavy rains, high winds, and most tremendous thunder, with dreadfully vivid lightning, are the attendants on December and January. The rain then pours down in torrents from the hill, and, descending with great rapidity, often choaks up the drains with large stones and rubbish, and sometimes does great injury to the works; but these storms are never of long duration; the sky soon clears up, the heavy clouds disperse, the cheering sun appears, and sufficiently compensates for the horrors of the night. During this season the water that serves the garrison for the ensuing summer is collected. The aqueduct which conducts it to the fountain in the centre of the town is extremely well executed, and was constructed by a Jesuit during the dominion of the Spaniards. The water, strained and purified in its passage from the reservoir to the fountain, is remarkably clear and wholesome.

POPULATION. According to accounts from the present governor, the inhabitants may be computed at 16,000, exclusive of the garrison, who are about 4,000, and exclusive of about 3,000 transient persons who are supposed to sleep within the walls every night.

SHIPPING AND COMMERCE. The vessels which belong to Gibraltar may be fairly taken at an average of three thousand tons. It was an emporium for immense quantities of colonial produce and British merchandize, while the ports on the continent were shut against this country. The Americans imported large quantities of tobacco, Havanna sugars, coffee, and all sorts of East-India goods, which were smuggled, and took in return money, wine, brandy, and other articles. It is

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assumed by several respectable merchants who reside there, that 800,000 pieces of nankeen are annually exported, and that the exports on an average of years could not be less than 2,000,000*l*. There being no custom-house, nor any revenue officer, smuggling is there carried on to an incalculable extent.

ESTABLISHMENT. Gibraltar is under the command of a Governor, who has a Lieutenant-governor, a chaplain, a secretary and officers. The situations of Deputy Judge-Advocate, Town Major, Barrack-master, and Commissary, are also of great importance, and some are liberally remunerated.

MALTA.

SITUATION. The Island of Malta is situate between Sicily and Africa, in $15^{\circ} 54'$ east longitude from London, and $35^{\circ} 44' 26''$ of north latitude. It is the most southern island in Europe, distant sixty miles from Cape Passaro, a hundred and ninety from Cape Spartivento, in Calabria, the nearest point on the continent of Europe, two hundred from Calipia, the nearest part of the continent of Africa, and two hundred and seventy from Tripoly. It is sixty miles in circumference, twenty long and twelve broad. It faces on the east the Island of Candia; on the west, the small islands or rocks of Pantaleria, Linosa, and Lampedosa; on the north, Sicily; and on the south, the kingdom of Tunis. Some geographers have considered this island as belonging to the continent of Africa, but with respect to British subjects at least, all doubt on this point is terminated by the statute 41 Geo. 3. c. 103., which enacts that this island, with its dependencies shall, for all purposes, and in all matters and things whatsoever, be considered to be part of Europe.

HISTORY. The most ancient author who mentions Malta is Homer, in his *Odyssey*, where it is called the Isle of Hyperia, which, according to fabulous history, was originally inhabited by Phæacians, a race of giants. The Phœnicians seized on Hyperia about 1519 years before Christ, established a colony, which soon became powerful and considerable, and they named it Ogygia. The Greeks drove the Phœnicians from Ogygia 736 years before Christ, and called it *Melitaion*, or Melita. About 528 years before the Christian æra, the Carthaginians disputed the possession with the Greeks, and after a long contest expelled them. The Romans acquired a title by treaty 242 years before Christ, and at the beginning of the second punic war first entirely established their dominion.

On the division of the Roman territories Malta fell to the lot of Constantine. On the ruin of the empire, the Vandals

seized upon Sicily in 454, and next took possession of this island, from which they were driven ten years afterward by the Goths. It was subjected to several other changes of masters until the year 1090, when the Normans took it from the Arabs; it was then successively under the dominion of Germany, when it was erected into a county and marquisate, of France, of Aragon, and Castile, under the sovereign of which it experienced great varieties of domination until the year 1428, when king Alphonso, in consideration of 30,000 florins, united the island and that of Goza for ever to Sicily.

Such were the changes which had taken place in the government of these two islands, when Charles V. added them to his vast domains: this politic prince considering their commanding station, the power they gave him to secure the coast of Sicily, to threaten that of Africa, and to interrupt, at pleasure, all commercial intercourse between the two seas; but fearing at the same time that these important places might be wrested from his successors, who, being obliged to attend to the centre of their dominions, or to the opposite confines, might not be able to keep a force sufficient for the defence of Malta and Goza; desirous also to save the expence of 340,000 French livres, which his treasury was obliged to furnish for the maintenance of garrisons, resolved to give them to some power too weak to be dangerous, although sufficiently honourable to be respected, and with these views made choice of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, which having been driven from its principal place of residence, had been wandering on the coast of Italy; and in 1530 he established the Knights as perpetual sovereigns of the Islands of Malta and Goza, together with the city of Tripoly.

KNIGHTS OF MALTA. This celebrated order was founded as early as the year 1099, by a French knight, named Gérard, under the title of *Hospitalers of St. John of Jerusalem*, for the purpose of serving and assisting the poor, sick, and wounded. In 1118, the order assumed a military form, and Raymond Dupuy was chosen first Grand Master. In 1291, the Knights were driven from Acre, their last hold in Palestine, and took refuge in Cyprus, where they were received by Henry II. king of that island, who gave them the town of Limisso. Here they remained till August 1310, when they took the town of Rhodes by storm. From this time they assumed the appellation of the Knights of Rhodes. The island of Rhodes remained in their possession until January 1. 1523, when their Grand Master, Villiers de L'isle Adam, after a gallant and obstinate defence, was compelled to surrender it to the Porte, and with all the surviving Knights, and four thousand of the inhabitants, left the island.

island. Malta was then bestowed on them by Charles V., and they retained possession of it till 1798.

The order consisted of a Grand Master, and one thousand Knights, from the different Roman Catholic states of Europe. They were divided into *langues* or tongues, nine in number; viz. three in France, two in Spain, two in Germany, one in Portugal, and one in Italy. These were again subdivided into commanderies, from which the Order received its annual revenues. The salary of the Grand Master amounted to 30,000*l.*, which, joined to those of the different Knights, in addition to their private fortunes, diffused over this diminutive island an amazing quantity of money. Hence arose the magnificence of the edifices, both public and private, of the churches, of the fortifications; and hence, too, the astonishing and almost incredible population of the island.

Of the above number of Knights, five hundred were obliged to reside in the island; the others were generally employed in the land or sea service of the nations to which they belonged, subject however to reside, in their turn, at Malta. No person could be admitted as a Knight, without being able to trace a noble ancestry for seven hundred years, and serving a certain number of campaigns against the Turks. It was also requisite, to make a vow of chastity, and swear never to be at peace or in amity with the Mahometans, or other infidels. Such were the primitive regulations, but the order had begun evidently to decline; its navy was become insignificant, its military ardour had subsided, and time had rendered animosity against the Porte needless.

CONQUEST BY THE FRENCH. Under these circumstances, in the year 1798, Bonaparte, on his expedition to Egypt, made a sudden acquisition of the island. The facility with which a place which art and nature had combined to render secure was surrendered, led to an opinion, which is still entertained, that the occupation of it by the French was favoured by treachery. In September 1800, after a very long blockade, the miseries of which the French troops endured with exemplary firmness, the island was surrendered to Great Britain. By the treaty of Amiens it was to have been restored, under certain guarantees, to the Knights of Malta, but several of the guaranteeing powers having refused the trust, and it being evident that the then ruler of France waited only for the absence of the English to regain this much desired territory, a course of angry negotiation was pursued between Great Britain and France, which terminated in declarations of war; and Malta is now by treaty secured as part of the British dominions.

APPEARANCE AND STRENGTH. To the south, and toward
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Tripoly, nothing is to be seen but shelves and rocks, without either creeks or ports; but to the east is the port of *Marfa-Scala*, and toward the south-west that of *Marfa-Sirocco*, capable of containing a great number of vessels; farther on, and likewise between the south and east, are the two gulfs of Antifeya and Musiaro; and at the very extremity of the island, toward the west, is a commodious cove, serving as a road for ships: this is named Melecca, and is separated from Goza by a channel about four miles broad. The small islands of Cumin and Cumino are in the middle of this channel.

The port of St. Paul is on the coast opposite Sicily, and is so called from a tradition that the vessel in which St. Paul was sent prisoner to Rome was wrecked there. St. George's Port, toward the north, is not far distant from that of St. Paul. Directly facing Cape Passaro are two considerable ports: that to the left is *Marfa Musceit*, or Port *Musset*, in the midst of which is a small island; near which all vessels from the Levant, or any other place suspected of contagious disease, perform quarantine. The other is merely called *Marfa*, or the Great Port, and is situated to the east. These two are separated by a point of land, at the extremity of which is Fort St. Elmo, serving to defend the entrance of both ports. There are two parallel points of land, shaped like fingers; these are in the great port, and project into the sea, being much less broad than long: the castle of St. Angelo is built on the one nearest the entrance of the port, and was the only fortress in the whole island when the Knights first took possession of it. The Grand Master, L'isle Adam, added bastions, ramparts, and ditches, and made cisterns, and built an arsenal and store-houses.

Il Borgo (or the Burgh), to the north of the castle of St. Angelo, is now separated from it by a wet ditch. This was the original place of residence of the order of Malta, and where the Turks failed in their efforts against the Knights. It resisted all their assaults, and deservedly gained the name of *Citta Vittoriosa*, or the Victorious City. The minister from the court of Rome, who has the title of Inquisitor, has a palace in this place: but all the other foreign ministers live in the city of *Valetta*; in which, during the reign of the last Grand Master, the Inquisitor, by consent of the Order, was likewise permitted to reside.

On the other point of land, to the left, is the great port. A fort and burgh have been erected; and though in fact it is only a peninsula, it is called the *Island of La Sangle*, from the name of the Grand Master who fortified it. The inhabitants of this burgh, during the siege of Malta, resisted every bribe offered them by the Turks; and, continuing constantly faithful
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to the Order, defended the place with so much valour, that it was named *Citta Invitta* (the Invincible City). The point of land on which the city La Sangle is built divides the Galley port from the French port. Fort St. Michael is on the side next the land, and defends the two ports of La Sangle.

Near the city La Sangle is the suburb *Burmola*, now called *Citta Conspicua* (the Conspicuous City). This is commanded by St. Margaret's Hill, on which is a fort of the same name. There is a fort called *La Cotoner*, consisting of a succession of bastions without any advanced works.

There are two forts on the point of land on each side of Fort St. Elmo: the one called *Ricasoli*, the other, lately built on Point Dragut, bears the name of Fort *Tigné*.

The point of land on which St. Elmo is built, was formerly called *Sceb-e-ras*, signifying, in Arabic, a place elevated above another. It was also named *La Guardia*. The city *Valetta* is built on this spot; and in order to secure it still more effectually on the land side, a suburb, surrounded by fortifications, has been since erected, to which is given the name of *La Floriana*.

CITIES AND VILLAGES. The island of Malta contains two principal cities, and twenty-two villages, or *casals*, a name derived from the Arabian word *rahal*, signifying *station*; and which indicates the manner in which these villages have been composed by degrees, through the means of the stations, colonies, and meetings of labourers, who successively built cabins, or houses in the country, in order to be nearer their different occupations. There are several hamlets between these villages, and a great many country-houses.

The *old* or *notable* city still preserves the name of *Mdina* among the inhabitants; this signifies city, and it was the only one at that time in the island. It is the seat of the bishopric: and its most remarkable edifices are, the palace of the Grand Master, built on the site of a fort taken down in 1455, by command of King Alphonso; and the Cathedral, erected on the foundation of a palace, which, according to ancient tradition, was inhabited by Publius, prince or *protos* of the island at the time of St. Paul's shipwreck. The body of the Cathedral has been rebuilt in a modern taste, and is very little ornamented. The greatest part of the pictures are by Matthias Preti. The old city had for governor a *bakem* or *podesta*, chosen by the Grand Master out of the class of principal citizens. This governor bore the name of *Captain of the Rod*; because the sign of his jurisdiction was a rod. The catacombs in the old city have always been celebrated; and, indeed, with the greatest justice. They are very extensive; and contain

streets in all directions, which are formed with such regularity, that the place has acquired the title of subterraneous city. Near it is the Grotto of Saint Paul, a cave divided into three separate parts by iron grates. The altar is in the part furthest from the entrance; in which is also a beautiful statue of the Saint, in white marble, the work of Caffa. The second resembles the nave of a church, and is a rock where the vegetation is constant, yielding a peculiar sort of earth, famous for the cure of fevers.

VALETTA. The first stone of this city, the capital of the island, was laid in 1566, and this spot particularly chosen on account of its elevated situation between the two great ports of the island. The whole being finished, on May 18. 1571, the entire body of the Order quitted the Burgh, where they had resided from their first arrival in Malta, and proceeded in a most solemn manner to their new habitation in the city Valetta.

Much less attention had been paid to the magnificence and convenience of the edifices within the walls, than to ensure safety by strong fortifications. The only church at that time was the *Chapel of Victory*; built by La Valette in commemoration of the raising the siege, and in honour of the blessed Virgin. A piece of ground was given to every different language for their respective Inns. The one belonging to the English, since succeeded by the Anglo-Bavarian, was on the spot now called *La Polverista*. A particular post was also assigned to each language, to defend in case of attack. There are three gates to this city, *La Reale* (Royal), the *Marine*, and the gate towards *Marfa Musseit*. The principal street reaches from the royal gate to the Castle of St. Elmo, and the others are built in a straight line parallel to the former; the whole paved with flat square stones. Beside private cisterns to every house, there are likewise public ones; together with a fountain, the source of which is in the southern part of the island, but the water conveyed by an aqueduct, built at a considerable expence by the Grand Master Aloff de Vignacourt. The houses are neat, and built of handsome stone; the roofs forming a flat terrace plastered with pozzolana, with pipes conducting to the cisterns, by which means every drop of rain water is preserved. Most of the houses have a balcony advancing into the street, where the inhabitants pass a great part of their time. The principal church is dedicated to St. John.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS. The public edifices in Malta consist of the Palace of the Grand Master, the Hotels or Inns of the different languages, the Conservatory, the Treasury, the University, the Town-Hall, the Palace of Justice, the Hospital, and the Barracks, all of which are built with much simplicity. The front

front of the Provençal Inn, and that of the Conservatory, are the most remarkable for their style of architecture. One part of the latter edifice serves for the Public Library; which useful establishment was first instituted by the Bailli de Tencin, in 1760, who during his lifetime furnished it with nine thousand seven hundred volumes, which he had collected at a considerable expence.

The tour of the island affords many objects highly interesting to literature and general curiosity, but which cannot be noticed here.

GOZA.

THE Island of Goza, situated about five miles distant, has always been considered as an appendage to Malta, and followed its fate in all periods. It is about eight miles in length, and in breadth four. This island, although fertile, was not sufficiently so to furnish the whole of the inhabitants with corn; seven or eight thousand salmes of which they were constantly obliged to purchase every year. The pasture-land is fine, and they fed great quantities of cattle for the use of Malta, with which there was a daily communication; five or six boats filled with provisions going every morning to Valetta, and returning the same afternoon with all such merchandize and eatables as were not to be found at Goza. The grapes of this island are particularly fine, and so highly esteemed by the Maltese, that they buy up the greatest part for their own use. Corn and cotton are cultivated with great success, and generally yield from sixteen to eighteen for one. Oxen or asses are employed for ploughing the land; and, in some particular cases, they dig a foot deep into the earth, in order to refresh it. The ancient plough was made use of both in that island and in Sicily. The air is extremely wholesome, and the country presents a variety of agreeable prospects. The two hills called *Nodar* and *Schiabrer* are surrounded by gardens watered by fountains, and are undoubtedly the pleasantest in the island. There was a collegiate church in the castle, where the service was performed by canons; likewise a prison, and the governor's palace; the whole containing about two hundred inhabitants. There were three convents of friars in the island; the Augustins, Franciscans, and Capuchins. Every casal or village had its separate parish; and in some of them were hermits, whose province it was to educate youth.

The governor of Goza was always a knight. The municipality consisted of four jurats; and there were three courts of

justice; one for the laity, another for the clergy, and a third for the inquisition. The first tried all civil and criminal causes; the second had jurisdiction of every thing relative to spiritual affairs; and the last (which consisted of only one canon) referred all causes to Malta which he could not immediately determine upon the spot. Goza contains only six ca-fals: *Garbo*, or *Gharb*; *Zebucco*, or *Zebug*; *Nadur*; *Quaccia*, or *Scicara*, or *Caccia*; *Zeuchia*, or *Scienquia*; and *Sannat*.

TRADE. Although these islands yield nothing that can render them of the least importance as an exporting country; yet the local situation of Malta renders it a great acquisition, both in a political and commercial point of view. Its position is important as an entrepôt for merchandize in time of war, and a most convenient station for any naval force, which it may be found necessary to send to the Mediterranean. It has in this view been found of eminent importance in war: its value must be much diminished in peace, but to what purposes it may be applied, the pressure of necessity, and the activity of commercial enterprize, will speedily discover.

POPULATION. By a census taken in 1803, the population of the two islands was returned at 94,000 persons, but since that time it is said to have increased considerably.

HELIGOLAND.

THE last possession of the British crown in Europe is Heligoland, the following account of which is taken entirely from Mr. Colquhoun:

This island is situated in the German Ocean, nearly opposite to the mouths of the river Eyder in Holstein, the Elbe, and the Weser. It is a barren rock, about nine miles in circumference. When the French government took possession of the Hanse towns of Hamburgh and Bremen, in 1807, it was captured from the Danes, and occupied by a British force, with the immediate view of making it a depôt for colonial produce and British manufactures, to be sold to merchants and others on the adjacent continent, and thereby, as far as possible, to render abortive the decrees of the French usurper.

For several years, vast quantities of merchandize found a ready sale at this depôt, which became at length a very considerable commercial establishment, where merchants from different parts of Great Britain, and also from the continent, had a temporary residence. But after the annexation of the Hanse towns to France, a stricter guard was established by the enemy, which considerably reduced the exportation to the opposite coast.

coast. By the late treaty of peace between Great Britain and Denmark, this country retains Heligoland in perpetuity.

It is inhabited by about 2000 Danish fishermen, who support themselves chiefly by wrecks, and by supplying the adjacent continental towns with fish. The republic of Hamburgh erected a light-house on the island, for the greater safety of vessels entering the Elbe, which has been repaired by the British government at a considerable expence.

ASIA.

INDIA. In describing the settlements and colonies effected by Great Britain in this quarter of the globe, the establishments in India first claim attention, both on account of their wealth and political importance, and the astonishing circumstances under which such an empire has been acquired, extended, and preserved. In treating on this subject, it will be necessary to extract from recent authors some account of the origin of the British trade with India, the formation and growth of the East India Company, and the means taken for governing and securing these vast and distant possessions.

The commerce of the western parts of the world with the opulent and early civilized nations of the east commenced at a very remote era, and may be traced in sacred and profane history to the Sabæans, and other people of Arabia, the Egyptians, and the Phœnicians. When the growing power of the Romans had reduced Egypt to a province, the people of that country began a direct trade with India, which none of their ancestors had ever attempted. Alexandria thereupon became the commercial capital of the whole Roman empire, and was scarcely inferior to the imperial city itself in population and opulence. In a few years after the commencement of the Indian voyages, the Egyptian creek navigators acquired a knowledge of the periodical regularity of the monsoons; the labour was thus abridged, and larger vessels were employed in the trade, which continued to flourish as long as the Roman empire remained in vigour. A considerable trade was also carried on to Constantinople, by a conveyance comprehending land-carriage, river-navigation, and the navigation of the Euxine (or Black) Sea and the Caspian. The conveyance by the Persian Gulf and the Euphrates was also kept up; and Palmyra, by being an entrepôt in this trade, became, as its ruins testify, wealthy and magnificent.

After the fall of the Roman empire, the Arabians again became the first commercial people of the western world, and, uniting

uniting the zeal of a new religion with military ardour, commanded the whole extent of the Mediterranean, assumed the empire of the Indian ocean, and extended their commercial voyages far beyond the utmost limits of the navigation of their ancestors. On almost every shore of that ocean, they either became the ruling people, or established factories, and were thereby enabled to command the commerce of silks, precious stones, pearls, spices, and many other precious articles. The holy wars made the nations of Europe acquainted with and desirous of these luxuries, and by degrees a scanty and circuitous commerce was established with the East.

DISCOVERIES AND TRADE OF THE PORTUGUESE. The supplies which could be obtained by the tedious and expensive process of land-carriage were of little importance, compared with those which afterward flowed in upon Europe when the passage by sea became ascertained and frequented. The first instrument, under the direction of Divine Providence, for bringing about this important change, was Henrique (or Henry), a younger son of Pedro, king of Portugal. This Prince, enlightened beyond the standard of his times, delighted in astronomy, geography, navigation, and those branches of mathematics which are subservient to them. From 1412, until his death in 1463, ships were dispatched to make discoveries on the west coast of Africa; but although each of these went further than those which had preceded, yet no effectual discovery was made in the lifetime of Henry. Succeeding sovereigns pursuing the same course of enterprize, Diaz, in 1486, passed the southern extremity of Africa, which, on account of the storms he had there encountered, he called *Cabo Tormentoso* (the Stormy Cape); but king João II., when he heard of the discovery, gave it the more auspicious name of *Cabo de Boa Esperança* (the Cape of Good Hope), which has ever since been used by all the nations of Europe.

The fortunate discovery of this passage enabled the Portuguese greatly to extend their commercial views; and Columbus, pursuing the same projects in a different direction, having explored those regions now known by the name of America and the West Indies, the Pope, by a presumptuous edict, issued to correct a very ignorant one, granted all new-found countries northward from the Canaries, to Spain, and all southward from those islands to Portugal. But this scheme of partition not being accepted, it was at last agreed, that the meridian of demarcation should be removed two hundred and seventy leagues further west, and that all the countries discovered, or to be discovered, on the east side of that line, should belong to Portugal, and all on the west side of it, to Spain,

Spain, without considering how their pretensions were to be regulated when their discoveries should extend one hundred and eighty degrees east or west of the meridian of partition, and interfere on the opposite side of the globe.

The Portuguese long continued formidable in arms and prosperous in commerce; but their ambition tended toward a domineering supremacy in all the countries and seas of Africa and Asia. Their trade centered at Antwerp, and totally destroyed that which Venice had before enjoyed as the general depôt of Indian produce. Hence a confederacy was formed against them by this republic, who instigated the sultan of Egypt to arm against Portugal. The fleets of this nation, however, vanquished those which the confederates could bring to cope with them; and their troops, headed by Alfonso Albuquerque, rapidly extended their conquests, influence, and power. Early in the sixteenth century settlements were effected at Goa, Malacca, and Ceylon, and a trade established with China, and in 1542 accident produced the discovery and facilitated the commerce with Japan. Still the tyranny and impolicy of the Portuguese governors who succeeded Albuquerque rendered the dominion of the parent state precarious, and while the power, conquests, and commerce of Portugal were widely extending, the causes were in embryo which were to produce diminution, disaster, and ruin. The hatred with which the tyranny, rapacity, and cruelty of these Europeans inspired the natives produced continual wars and renewed confederacies. The establishment of the Inquisition at Goa alienated from them even those whom a conversion to Christianity had attached to their interests. The king of Ternate expelled them from all the Molucco islands. Malaccas was invested by a powerful army, led first by the king of Acheen, and afterwards by a female warrior, the queen of Japara. The settlements in Ceylon were already almost lost in consequence of an insult offered to the religion of the natives. The Moors, and even the Hindoos, were now more expert than formerly in maritime affairs and naval warfare. They had procured artificers, who made artillery for them, and instructed them in the management of it. Their squadrons covered every part of the coast; and it was now not unusual to see Portuguese ships defeated and taken by the country cruisers. The impolitic measure of dividing their Indian possessions into three governments also contributed to enfeeble the Portuguese, by taking away the force which results from undivided counsels and an united impulse. In this state were they when the disappearance of Don Sebastian, king of Portugal, enabled Philip the Second to annex his dominions to the crown of Spain.

This

This union did not contribute to the prosperity of the Portuguese in India. The King of Spain considering America, which sent him home cargoes of the precious metals, the territory of highest importance, was principally anxious to prevent the pecuniary loss which he sustained through the illicit trade, the piracy, and the numerous malversations prevalent in India. For this purpose he established in 1587 an East India Company, which, in consideration of certain sums annually paid, was to enjoy exclusive privileges; a measure extremely unpalatable to the European inhabitants of the Asiatic continent, who all, without exception, built their hopes of fortune on the prosecution of some prohibited scheme of gain. Bigotry, the characteristic and curse of Philip II., completed the distress of his Indian subjects. In 1594, an order arrived from the Pope and the Catholic King to convert the infidels by force. Such an order was in fact a commission to murder and plunder; and the pagodas, or temples, hitherto the sacred and inviolable depositories of the wealth of India, which even the ferocious bigotry of the Mahommedans had respected, were despoiled of the accumulated riches of a long succession of ages. The natives with horror beheld their most sacred rites trampled upon; and their minds were filled with detestation of the perpetrators of these daily atrocities. Nor was this new attempt at all acceptable to the Portuguese subjects themselves. They were now mostly natives of the country of a mixed race, in which the Indian blood predominated; and being but nominally Portuguese and Christians, they cared little for the country or the religion of their forefathers. The same persecuting spirit occasioned the insurrection of the people of the Netherlands, in Europe, who threw off the yoke of Spain, and, aided by Queen Elizabeth, became united and independent states. To punish these, whom he considered as his rebellious subjects, King Philip prohibited their trade to Lisbon for the commodities of India, and seized their ships; but the Dutch speedily avenged themselves by fitting out four vessels for India direct, which arrived at Java in 1595, and these being followed in 1602 by the first English ships under Captain Lancaster, a foundation was laid for a new political and commercial power in Asia, which soon exceeded, and finally suppressed that of Portugal.

The persevering hostility and active commercial enterprise of the Dutch continued to impede the trade of Portugal both in Europe and India, and to extend the influence and commerce of the United States, until the year 1640, when the Portuguese, by a well-concerted plan, separated their country from the dominion of Spain, and placed the sceptre in the hands of

the Duke of Braganza, by the title of John the fourth. The new government directed its attention to India; but rapine, murder, and the horrible excesses of a bigotted and greedy administration had alienated the hearts of the natives, and the ascendancy of other nations had become too great for the power of Portugal to shake. After several unsuccessful experiments, a limited commerce was established in 1731; in 1733, the Inquisition at Goa was abolished, and for the empty though sonorous title of Viceroy that of Captain-General was substituted; but their affairs never recovered. Of all their wide-spread dominions in the Oriental seas, there remain now only a few settlements of very little value on the east coast of Africa; and on the continent of Hindostan they possess Diu, and some posts and factories of inferior importance in the gulf of Cambay, together with Goa, now as formerly the capital of the Portuguese dominions in India. They still have permission to reside at their settlement at Macao, near the coast of China, but so much under the controul of the Chinese, that they may be reckoned subjects of that empire.

COMMERCE OF THE DUTCH WITH INDIA. Religious persecution, as already has been mentioned, drove the people of the Netherlands into hostility, and occasioned their separation from the crown of Spain; and the seizure of their ships at Lisbon urged them to attempt a direct intercourse with India. After some ineffectual attempts at the discovery of a northern passage, some merchants at Amsterdam formed themselves into a company, and beginning only with a capital of 70,000 guilders, sent in 1595 four ships carrying sixty-two guns and two hundred and eighty-eight mariners, under the direction of Cornelius Houtman, to begin a new commerce in this remote region. Although some disasters attended this first essay, yet the balance of advantage was sufficiently alluring to keep alive the spirit of commercial enterprize. Several companies were formed; the hatred of the natives, justly excited against their Spanish and Portuguese oppressors, favoured their enterprizes; and in 1602 the States-General terminated the commercial rivalry which had impeded full success, by granting a charter which consolidated the several companies, secured to them for the term of twenty-one years the exclusive privilege of trading to India, and invested them with power to commission governors and other officers, build forts, maintain garrisons, and make war and peace in all countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. This company formed itself into six chambers, named after the six principal cities where companies had before been formed: their capital was 6,459,840 florins, and their directors sixty-five, each city supplying a number proportioned to the amount

amount of its capital subscribed. This subscription brought a great deal of money into Holland from other countries, and also induced many opulent merchants of the Spanish provinces in the Netherlands, and of other places, to remove with their effects into the Dutch provinces, which thus received a great accession of valuable subjects and capital.

A fleet of fourteen large ships was equipped to sustain the interests of this company: they sailed under the command of Admiral Waerwyk in June 1602, and notwithstanding the opposition of the Portuguese and Spaniards, formed establishments in the Molucca Islands, and supplanted the Portuguese in the commerce of Japan. In these operations they were much assisted by the English, their benefactors and allies in Europe, whose first fleet of five ships appeared in this part of the world in 1602.

Commercial rivalry soon destroyed the good understanding between the two companies; which it was vainly endeavoured to restore by a treaty executed in Europe. The Dutch drove the English out of the islands of Lantore and Pula Roon with circumstances of horrid barbarity; and in February, 1623, they massacred all the English in Amboyna with diabolical tortures, on the incredible pretence, that a small handful of men, not exceeding twenty, had conspired to expel them from four strong forts, garrisoned by five or six hundred soldiers. In January, 1619, the English expelled the Dutch from Jacatra, a town in Java, in which both nations had factories; but the Dutch soon returned in greater force, and took the place from the natives, to whom the English had resigned it. Koen, the Dutch commander, immediately laid the foundation of a regular fortified city, which he called Batavia, and appointed it to be the capital of the Company's territories and settlements in India, instead of Amboyna.

In 1622, the charter of the Dutch company was renewed, and they continued generally prosperous, although occasionally checked and impeded by quarrels, arising from their pride and avarice. Upon the revolution in Portugal in 1640, the new King, John IV., entered into an alliance with the Dutch, they being, as well as himself, at war with Spain; and it was agreed that both powers should retain the territories they then possessed. But the inhabitants of Brazil, who, as subjects of Spain, had been invaded by the Dutch, and had lived some time under their dominion, in a few years expelled them, and transferred their allegiance to the King of Portugal, their natural and legitimate sovereign. In this revolt they were assisted by many of the Dutch inhabitants, who were rendered uneasy by the excessive parsimony of the West India Com-

pany in their establishments. The loss of Brazil, while it ruined the Dutch West India Company, was one of the many events which contributed to aggrandize the East India Company; for the Court of Portugal, thenceforth turning their attention to that country, neglected their dominions in the East at the very time when they stood most in need of support. The Dutch, on the revolt of Brazil, vigorously attacked the Portuguese settlements in India. In 1641 they obtained possession of the important city of Malacca, esteemed the key of the navigation of the Indian seas, by means of an agreement with the Portuguese governor, who was to receive 80,000 dollars as the reward of his treachery, but was more deservedly put to death by those in whose favour he had renounced his loyalty and his honour.

Renewing their charters from time to time, the Dutch East India Company continued to extend their commerce and their establishments. In 1650, they began to form their settlement at the Cape of Good Hope. In 1656, they sent an expensive and unsuccessful embassy to China. In 1658, after a struggle of twenty years against the natives and the Portuguese, they established themselves securely in Ceylon. In 1660, they destroyed a Portuguese fleet in the harbour of Macassar, taking only one ship, which was so rich a prize, as not only to defray the charges of the expedition, but to indemnify them for their mission to China; an indemnity the more agreeable, as the valuable property on board the fleet was understood to belong to the Jesuits, to whose intrigues at the court of Canton they attributed their failure. They moreover obliged the King of Macassar to surrender to them the port and fortrefs of Jompandam, to expel the Portuguese, and to become bound never to admit any other Europeans than themselves to trade in his dominions.

As a contrast to these successes, the Dutch were, in 1661, expelled from their valuable settlement in the island of Tywan, or Formosa, a place of importance, from the facilities it afforded to their commerce with Japan. They made several attempts to regain it, but without effect.

Notwithstanding this reverse, they assiduously pursued their plans of aggrandizement, and of excluding all other Europeans from the commerce of India. In 1663 they sent a fleet to the coast of Malabar, under Commodore Goen, who took Caulan, Cananore, and Cochin from the Portuguese. On the arrival of a reinforcement from Batavia, the Rajah of Porca requested to be permitted to become the vassal of the Company, on paying the same tribute that he had paid Portugal. Cranganore submitted; and the Zamorin of Calicut, the

the King of Cochin, and some other princes of the coast, were admitted to be the Company's allies. Thus were the Portuguese in one season expelled from the coast of Malabar, and thus were the sovereignty of a great part, and the trade of the whole, transferred to the Dutch. In the end of the year 1666, the Governor-General of Batavia, alleging some cause of complaint against the King of Macassar, sent a fleet against him. The Dutch, after plundering the country, sailed for Boutan, which was then invaded by the army and fleet of Macassar; and having defeated them, they sent 5,500 of the prisoners to cultivate a desert island, made slaves of 400, and made a present of 5,000 to the Rajah of Palacca, their ally. They finally conquered the whole country of Macassar, with the neighbouring states; by which the English and Portuguese were not only completely excluded from residing in those territories, but also from obtaining the spices brought from the islands which produce them to Macassar and the neighbouring ports, where they used to find opportunities of purchasing them; and thus was the monopoly of that precious merchandize completely secured to the Dutch Company.

In 1664, on an application for a renewal of their charter, the company gave a most gratifying detail of their establishments, settlements, and commerce, shewing a very flattering picture of prosperity. Some of the most important particulars are as follow: *Amboyna*, with its subordinate islands, which supply the whole world with cloves. The *Banda Islands*, which produce nutmegs and mace. *Ternate* and the other *Molucco Islands*, *Macassar* and *Manado*. In *Sumatra* it was said the company possess *Jamby*, *Patimbuan*, and *Andrigiri*. They have a contract for the sole purchase of all the pepper produced on the west side of the island. From *Japan* they receive only silver and copper, the emperor having prohibited the exportation of gold. It is expected that the Emperor of China will permit the company to have a free trade. In *Coromandel* the company have a very important trade in cotton goods, which are sold partly in India and partly in Europe. In *Pegu* there are posts at *Ava* and *Serian*. In *Bengal* the company have factories at *Hooghly*, *Cossimbazar*, *Dacca*, *Patna*, *Pipilipatan*, &c. and drive a great trade in silk goods, cotton goods, saltpetre, sugar, musk, rice, butter, &c. *Ceylon* is one of the most valuable possessions of the company. It produces the best cinnamon, elephants of a superior quality, areka, &c. The company have 2,500 soldiers in garrison at *Columbo*, *Punta de Gallo*, *Negumbo*, *Manar*, and *Jafuapatam*. In *Malabar* the company have *Cochin*, *Cranganore*, *Coulam*, and *Cananore*, all taken from the Portuguese. In *Persia* there is an advantageous trade, the chief seat of which is at *Gambroon*,

Gambroon, with a dependant post at *Ispahan*. The settlement at the *Cape of Good Hope* is merely intended as a place of refreshment for the ships on their outward and homeward voyages; and it abundantly answers that purpose. The island of *Mauritius* was some time ago abandoned, but the company have lately sent people to re-occupy it.

Beside these, they had factories and mercantile establishments at several other places, and their statement fully shewed their complete triumph over the only powers who could be considered in competition with them, Portugal and England.

Pursuing their system of exclusion, they took advantage of a disputed succession to the throne of Java, and in 1683, acting as allies of one of the competitors, took possession of Bantam, and plundered the English and Danish factories; in the former of which they found gold, jewels, and other property, to a vast amount. They also recommended a Dutch prime minister to the king their ally, and never rested till they got the English and Danes driven out of the country, after which they had all the pepper in the island upon their own terms. Some subsequent insurrections afforded a pretence for augmenting the Dutch guards, and building a fort for their residence, by which the harbour and the city were completely commanded. They also took the French settlement of Pondicherry, on the 6th of September, 1693, and immediately fortified it in the strongest manner; but, quite contrary to their expectation, they were obliged to restore it, with all its improvements, by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697.

For many succeeding years, the annals of the Dutch in India present little that is interesting. Their tyranny and encroachments occasioned insurrections among the natives, and wars which were conducted with various success. The altered taste of European nations rendered spices less valuable than they had been, and the growing power and extended enterprizes, both in commerce and war, of England and France, reduced the importance of the Hollanders to a low ebb. In 1775 the charter of their company was allowed to expire. Their trade had been for some time in a declining state, which had obliged them to reduce their dividends from twenty to fifteen, and afterwards to twelve and a half per cent.; they were unable, or at least not willing, to pay so large a premium as they had usually done for the renewal of their privilege, and the States-General granted it for thirty years on a payment of two millions of florins, and 360,000 florins annually.

The Dutch having joined the French and Spaniards in the American war, their property in India suffered severely. In 1781 Commodore Johnstone took and destroyed five of their

homeward and one of their outward-bound ships. In November Sir Edward Hughes and Sir Hector Munro took Negapatan, and thence proceeded to Ceylon, where they made themselves masters of Trincomalee.

The first war of the French Revolution was still more disastrous. In August, 1795, the important station of Malacca was captured by the British forces; and in the following month General Clarke and Admiral Elphinstone reduced the colony at the Cape of Good Hope. Soon after, all the Dutch forts and territories in Ceylon were also captured by the British forces. In the beginning of 1796 Admiral Rainier took possession of the two governments of Amboyna and Banda. During the cessation of hostilities, which took place in October, 1801, all their oriental settlements were restored except Ceylon; but at the renovation of the war in 1803 they were all retaken.

Having thus shewn the origin, progress, and present state of two powers, the earliest and most formidable of those who have attempted to form commercial establishments in India, it is not considered necessary to take a view of the transactions of other states which were of less considerable importance. Mr. Macpherson, from whose History of the Commerce with India the above particulars are derived, has also given an account of the commercial proceedings of the Danes, the Ostend company, the Swedes, the Imperial Company, and the Spaniards, but these are too remote or too minute for this work. The establishment of the French, although more recent than that of the English, demands some notice as to its origin, but the frequent collisions of the two countries in later times will render a separate view of this part of the subject unnecessary.

COMMERCE OF THE FRENCH WITH INDIA. Although the French, as an opulent and luxurious nation, were great consumers of the spices and other delicacies procured from India, they did not, so early as some other nations, effect a regular commerce with that country. In 1503, the merchants of Rouen fitted out a small squadron which was unsuccessful, and there are other accounts of commercial enterprizes during the early part of the sixteenth century; but they are given on doubtful authority, and if they ever existed, the spirit which excited them was extinct before the year 1537, nor could it be revived by proclamations which were issued in that year, and in 1543 by Francis the First.

In May, 1601, the fury of religious warfare having somewhat relented, an association of merchants fitted out two ships at Saint Malo for India, under the command of the Sieur Bardaliere. They arrived in the following February at Madagascar, where they remained till May; and in July they suffered shipwreck

wreck among the Maldives, a long chain of many thousands of small islands, extending north and south from the equator, which produce scarcely any article of commercial value. Nearly about the same time that Bardaliere sailed from Saint Malo, Girard, a Flemish navigator, who had been in India on board a Dutch ship, made an offer of his knowledge and services to some French merchants, who, upon his suggestion, entered into an association for prosecuting the East India trade. In 1604 Henry IV. incorporated them by a charter, with exclusive privilege of trading to India for fifteen years; and they were to be exempted from duties on goods imported in their first two voyages.

This charter producing no commercial effort on the part of the company, some merchants of Rouen proposed to carry on the trade, and after some opposition were incorporated with the company in 1615, and denominated the Molucca Company, or the Montmorenci Fleet. They sent out two ships, and although obliged to sell one, made with the other a profitable voyage. This, and similar feeble attempts, were the only exertions made by France till the year 1664, when Colbert formed the famous East India Company, with an exclusive privilege for fifty years, and a stock of fifteen million livres, (625,000*l*.)

Every encouragement was afforded to this project. The king sent a hundred and nineteen circular letters to the magistrates of the various towns, and invited all his subjects, without distinction, to subscribe to the Company's stock. The nobles were allured by the prospect of gain, and an assurance that their engaging as partners in this trade should be no derogation from their dignity. Honours and hereditary titles were also promised to those who should distinguish themselves in promoting the prosperity of the company. Foreigners, subscribing twenty thousand livres, were declared denizens of the kingdom; and officers of the army, subscribing the same sum, were allowed to be absent from their regiments without stoppage of pay or promotion. The sovereignty of the great island of Madagascar was conveyed to them as a dependence of the crown of France, together with the power of appointing civil and military officers in all their settlements, sending ambassadors in the king's name to the princes of India, and making treaties with them. The king engaged to protect their establishments by force of arms, and to furnish sufficient convoys for their outward and homeward fleets. He also engaged to pay them a premium of fifty livres for every ton of merchandize exported, and seventy-five livres for every ton imported by them, and to exempt all stores necessary for building, equipping, and victualling, their vessels, from paying duties of any kind

outward or inward. The company were allowed to export gold and silver notwithstanding the law. Their goods imported and consumed in France were charged with only half the duties imposed on similar articles; and those sent by them to foreign countries, and to the privileged provinces, were entirely exempted. The king engaged to lend them the fifth part of the sum necessary for the first three voyages, and to allow the money to remain in their hands ten years without interest.

Four vessels were sent out in 1665 with all the apparent means of making a strong settlement, but the conduct of the people was so foolish and atrocious, that, in the end, they were all massacred by the natives of Madagascar, except a small number who made their escape to the island of Mascarenhas, since called Bourbon. The company also established a principal factory at Surat, with several posts on the coast of Malabar subsidiary to it; but it was not long before they abandoned their station at Surat without paying their debts. They obtained two posts in the kingdom of Siam, attempted to settle a post in Tonquin, and began a trade with Cochin-China, but met with no success in any of those countries, nor in several other places where they attempted to settle.

They were reduced to great difficulties by the persevering hostility of the Dutch; but at length, in 1672, M. Martin, their Governor, purchased from the King of Vissapour a village upon the coast called Pondicherry, with a small adjacent district, where he settled with the remainder of the French forces. Even this refuge was regarded with envy by the Dutch, who after failing in an attempt to induce a native prince to seize it, gained it by force, but resigned it again by treaty in 1697.

Struggling against great difficulties of every kind, the French East India Company dragged on a feeble existence for several years, occasionally licensing other adventurers to trade within the limits of their charter, in consideration of receiving a small per centage on their returns, until the year 1708, when, by permission of government, they licensed some merchants of Saint Malo to send their own ships to India, on condition that the company should receive a duty of fifteen per cent. upon their returns, and some other advantages. Scarcely any point in history has been recorded with more contradictory assertions than the success of the Malouin merchants in their East India voyages. The vessels intended for this trade, being loaded with goods proper for the Spanish colonies, after making some stay at Brazil, proceeded round Cape Horn and traded upon the coasts of Chili and Peru, receiving silver in exchange for their goods. Thence they stretched across the Pacific Ocean, and after touching for refreshments at the Ladrone Islands, proceeded

ceeded to the coast of China, and traded at Emouy, where the port charges were very moderate, and they were at liberty to sail when they pleased; advantages not to be found at Canton, which is now the only Chinese port in which Europeans are admitted. They then passed the Cape of Good Hope and steered for the French islands in the West Indies, where they also carried on a profitable trade, and thence returned to France. These voyages generally took up from three to five years, and the profits made in them sometimes amounted to *fifteen hundred per cent.* upon the original cost. The Malouins continued these voyages till 1719; but their neglect of the India trade, for which alone they were licensed, obliged the people of France to purchase nine-tenths of the India goods required for their internal consumption from foreigners; and if Melon, who published a political essay on commerce at Paris in 1736, was well informed, their sales of India goods never amounted to two millions of livres in any year, which could scarcely equal a tenth part of the quantity needed for the consumption of all France. This trade is said to have been conducted by an association of merchants, who contributed a capital of four millions of livres; so it was still the trade of a very considerable company.

While the Malouins were thus circumnavigating the globe, a new company was established by a royal arret, dated in February, 1713, for trading to China, unconnected with the East India Company, or the associates of St. Malo, and the duration of their privilege was to be fifty years. The only business they transacted was sending out two ships, which, in 1718, returned with cargoes, not to France, but to Ostend and Genoa. In 1719 this China company was incorporated with the great company of the west.

In 1714, when the East India Company had languished out half a century without having got beyond the debility of infancy, with their capital exhausted, and a debt of ten millions of livres, they obtained a prolongation of their exclusive privilege for ten years. Before the expiration of this term, the company was swallowed up in the grand and well-known scheme, or as he called it, system, of John Law. In unravelling, by patient investigation, and in remedying by arbitrary edicts, the failures and mischiefs of this unprincipled imposture, the affairs of the East India Company were thus arranged. The shares, which had been extended to 600,000, representing three millions of livres, were finally reduced to 56,000, without any compensation to the numerous stock-holders, whose property was thus annihilated. The exclusive privilege of providing all France with tobacco had been farmed to the company soon after their establishment, but afterward resumed by the king, on finding that it was ne-

glected by them. He now restored the farm to them as a compensation for money due; at the same time he ceded to them, instead of payment of another debt, the domain of the west, they taking upon them the charge of supporting the civil and military establishments. The king also, understanding that the company's commerce was increasing, established regulations for their shares and dividends, and appointed their council, with Cardinal Du Bois for their president, who should hold their meetings at the India House in Paris. He soon after gave them the exclusive sale of coffee, from the profits of which, and tobacco, he directed them to make a dividend of 150 livres annually upon every share, independent of what they might gain by their foreign commerce. In February, 1724, he moreover gave them the privilege of making lotteries, with prizes of life annuities or shares of their stock.

In June, 1725, Louis XV. confirmed to the company, for ever, their privilege of exclusive trade in slaves, gold dust, &c. from Cape Blanco along the coast of Africa to the Cape of Good Hope, and the sole trade of every kind from that Cape eastward to Cape Horn, including all the coasts and islands of the Indian and Pacific Oceans, together with the property of Louisiana, the beaver trade of Canada, and the commerce of the coast of Barbary; in short, almost the whole world except Europe. He also confirmed their exclusive sale of tobacco and coffee, reserving, with respect to the latter, the privilege of the city of Marseilles, and binding them never to raise the price. The king commanded them never to interfere with matters of finance; and he revoked the grant of the domain of the west and the privilege of lotteries. He also established many regulations respecting their stock, dividends, meetings, and other matters.

In the same month the king, by another edict, gave them a discharge of all demands on account of the Royal Bank; and cancelled many intricate old accounts. In order to conceal the names of all concerned, and as much as possible to draw the veil of oblivion over the national phrenzy, he ordered that all papers and accounts belonging to the company, and not relating to commerce, should be burnt.

It was only after the company of the Indies were delivered, though with the loss of almost their whole capital, from all connection with financial legerdemain, that they could begin to be truly considered as a commercial company. They made some efforts to cultivate Louisiana; and in 1722 New Orleans, which had been founded in 1717, and had hitherto been no more than a petty village, was enlarged, and made the capital of the province. Attention was also given to the other nu-

merous branches of commerce comprehended in their privilege; and in 1725 there belonged to them 125 vessels of various kinds; but many of them very small. It might be supposed that the company possessed a redundancy of capital about this time, as they established a discount office (*caisse d'escompte*) for the accommodation of the merchants of Paris and the public in 1727, which was continued till 1759, and is said to have been so prudently conducted by the syndics and directors of the company, that in all that number of years the only loss they sustained was one bill of 4,000 livres.

They seem not to have been equally fortunate in all the other branches of their trade; or probably they became sensible that they had undertaken more business than it was possible to manage to advantage; for in 1730, they begged of the king to accept their resignation of the exclusive trade of Barbary. He also resumed the farm of tobacco, reserving to them an annual revenue of eight millions payable out of it. In the following year, they prevailed on the king to take the province of Louisiana off their hands, which cost them much solicitation, besides paying 1,450,000 livres for the favour.

They retained their beaver-trade in Canada, till that country fell under the dominion of Great Britain; and they retained the slave-trade on the coast of Africa till 1741, although they sustained very great losses by furnishing slaves to the colonists in America and the West Indies upon credit. They also peopled the Isles of France and Bourbon, and rendered them valuable possessions. Still their principal object was the East India trade; Pondicherry, the seat of the governor-general of their settlements, became a large, regular, and beautiful city, containing 70,000 inhabitants, mostly natives. Under the administration of Orry in France, and of Dumas, La Bourdonnais, Buffly, and Dupleix, their affairs prospered exceedingly, and they obtained considerable territorial possessions on the coast of India. Their trade was carried on to such an extent, and for some time with such brilliant success, as to excite the jealousy of the English and Dutch companies. In 1734, their sales at L'Orient amounted to 18,000,000 of livres; in 1740 they rose to 22,000,000: in 1754 they reached 36,000,000; after which they were depressed by the war which then began.

At this period we leave the affairs of the French East India Company, as their subsequent history is comprized in that of the English.

COMMERCE OF THE ENGLISH WITH INDIA. Although the English were only the third European nation, in order of time, who effectually engaged in the commerce of India, they were next to the Portuguese in perceiving the importance of conducting the

the valuable trade with that country entirely by sea. As the great objects of the Portuguese were to bring home their India goods at a lighter expense of carriage than the Venetians paid upon theirs, and to avoid the dangers and arbitrary impositions to which traders are exposed in traversing the territories of a great number of despotic sovereigns, so the English proposed to search for a route, which should be shorter, and consequently cost less time and money, than that which the Portuguese had so long been labouring to discover. For this purpose, John Cabot sailed in May, 1497, with two ships, for the purpose of discovering a western passage to India. His son, Sebastian, inheriting his father's belief of the possibility of accomplishing a passage to India by a shorter navigation than doubling the southern extremity of Africa, persuaded a number of merchants, with whom several noblemen of the court also joined, to contribute a capital of 6,000*l.*, in shares of 25*l.* each, for the purpose of prosecuting the discovery in the north part of the world, and laying in a cargo of such goods as they thought might be suitable for the countries they expected to arrive at. They obtained a charter on the ninth of May, 1553, in virtue of which three ships, whose united capacity was only 370 tons, sailed under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, as admiral, Captain Richard Chancellor, and Cornelius Durfoorth. Sir Hugh, with his whole ship's company, was frozen to death in the Northern Ocean, near the coast of Lapland. Captain Chancellor got into the harbour of Saint Nicolas at the mouth of the River Dwina, where Archangel was afterward built. Thence he travelled to the court of Ivan Basilowitz, the Grand Duke, Czar or Emperor of Russia, who granted many commercial privileges to the English, and so founded the Russia Company. A subsequent voyage gave rise to the Hudson's Bay Company.

The hope of discovering a northern passage is now supposed to be finally extinguished by the travels of Hearne and Mackenzie, who are said to have proceeded by land over the very space which navigators had imagined that ice alone prevented them from passing by sea. The ill success of adventurers in the 16th century, although it did not demonstrate the impracticability of their attempt, suspended its progress, and new means were devised for a trade with India. The first effort was made by the Turkey Company, who, aided by letters from Queen Elizabeth, insuring the friendship of several Oriental princes, made an overland journey from Tripoli to India, which began in 1583, and did not terminate until 1591.

In this interval the discoveries of Sir Francis Drake had afforded new information respecting the navigation to India. The English had long obtained their spices from the Portuguese;

guesse; but when the war with Spain, in the latter part of the sixteenth century, terminated all intercourse between England and Portugal, which was then annexed to Spain; and when the Dutch, taking advantage of that circumstance, raised the price of pepper to nearly thrice its existing cost, the merchants of London resolved to renew their endeavours to obtain a share of the rich trade of India.

FORMATION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY. For this purpose, Mr. Mildenhall, a merchant of London, was, in 1599, deputed to the court of the Great Mogul, at Agra, which he did not reach till 1603: and, after a prodigious waste of time and money, occasioned by the machinations of some Jesuits residing in Agra, and two Italian merchants (most probably Venetians), he obtained, in 1606, from the Mogul, an ample grant of commercial privileges for the English.

In the mean time, the merchants were assiduously employed in concerting measures for the establishment of a company for the East India trade, independent of the Turkey trade: and on the 22d of September, 1599, the Lord Mayor of London, most of the aldermen, and other principal merchants of the city, to the number of one hundred and one, assembled at Founders-Hall, and formed an association for trading to India, for which they subscribed a capital of 30,133*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

After some delays, occasioned by the state of politics, Queen Elizabeth, on the 31st day of December, 1600, granted a charter to a great number of gentlemen therein named, constituting them "one bodie corporate and politique indeed, by the name of the Governour and Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies," with succession, the power to purchase lands (without any limitation), to sue and be sued, and to have a common seal, with the exclusive privilege of trading during fifteen years, reckoning from Christmas, 1600, to all parts of Asia, Africa, and America, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, eastward to the Straits of Magellan, except such countries or ports as may be in the actual possession of any Christian prince in amity with the Queen. If the company's privileges were found by experience to be prejudicial to the realm, the Queen might revoke the charter, upon giving two years' notice; and, if the trade should be found beneficial to the realm after the trial of fifteen years, new letters patent should be granted for the same term.

Under this charter, with a capital nominally 72,000*l.*, but really 68,373*l.*, four ships were equipped, the best in England; the largest was of 600, the smallest of 240, and they carried altogether 1400 tons, and 480 men. With these and other vessels, the Company made in thirteen years twelve voyages,
with

with diversity of success, but with an average profit of one hundred and thirty-eight per cent. on the whole.

Up to this time, the stock had been divided at the end of each voyage, and a fresh subscription entered into for a new undertaking, to which each member advanced as much or as little as he thought fit, or abstained altogether; but the inconvenience of this system being now fully apparent, a subscription was opened in 1613 for conducting the trade upon a joint stock, all the voyages being henceforth for account of the whole Company as one united body; and that they might have the opportunity of regulating their subsequent conduct as circumstances should direct, they agreed to limit the duration of the joint capital to four years. The stock thus subscribed amounted to 418,691*l.* to be paid in by equal instalments in each of the four years.

The trade thus established assumed a more imposing aspect. The English raised a high reputation at the court of the Great Mogul, by their bravery in repelling an attack of the Portuguese, who were regarded by the princes of India as a common enemy, but who, from their domineering ascendancy at sea, were also considered as invincible on that element. The Company had also enemies at home, who assailed their reputation by invectives in print, and others more dangerous, who interfered with their prosperity, and tarnished their fame by piratical enterprizes. Their usefulness and importance were however so very evident to government, that one of their calumniators was prosecuted by the attorney-general, and Sir Thomas Roe, in January, 1614-15, was dispatched as ambassador to the court of the Mogul, where he obtained favourable grants for the establishment of factories at Surat, Cambay, and other places, and a general firmaun for free trade in every part of the Mogul's dominions.

In 1616, the Company possessed factories at Bantam, Jacatra, afterwards called Batavia, and Japara in Java; Acheen, Jambee, and Tecoa, in Sumatra; Banda in the Banda islands; Benjarmassing and Socodania, in Borneo; Firando, in Japan; Surat, Amadavad, Agra, Azmere or Agimere, and Brampore or Burampore, in the Mogul's dominions; Calicut on the Malabar coast; Masulipatnam and Petapoli on the Coromandel coast; Siam, the capital of the kingdom of Siam; Patan in Malacca; and Macassar, in the island of Celebes.

The quarrels between the English and the Dutch, and a cunning view of their own interest, produced at this time a proposal from the latter for an union, in favour of which they alleged several specious advantages, and among others, that it would enable them to subdue the common enemy, the Portuguese.

guese. The English company rejected the proposal, observing, very properly, that the Moluccas, where the Dutch obtained their spices, would never yield advantages equal to the charge of maintaining them; that the trade offered by the Dutch was not equivalent to that which the English had established for themselves on the Malabar coast; and that war, except in self-defence, was not the business of merchants.

At this time the Company closed the account of their first subscription, which from various causes produced to the proprietors no greater profit than 87 and a half per cent. in eight years; but such was the public confidence in the Company, that when they proposed to raise by a new subscription 1,629,040*l.*, the largest sum ever known to have been similarly advanced at that day, people of both sexes, and of all ranks, classes, and professions, hastened in crowds to contribute the portions required. The number of subscribers was nine hundred and fifty-four, and among them were fifteen dukes and earls, thirteen countesses and other titled ladies, eighty-two knights, judges, and privy counsellors, and twenty-six clergymen and physicians. It was determined that the duration of this stock, as that of the preceding one, should be limited to four years; or, to speak more correctly, that the Company should send ships to India during four years, and should bring the accounts to a close as soon as possible after the arrival of the last of them in England.

The Dutch having made a new proposal for an union which had been rejected, and having expressed great resentment and a determination to injure the English, a squadron of six large ships was fitted out and put under the command of Sir Thomas Dale, who was invested with ample powers, not only for protection of British commerce against foreign aggression, but also for punishing those interlopers who disgraced the English name by their piratical enterprizes. Attempts were made to put an end to hostilities, and a treaty for that purpose was concluded in July, 1619, at London, by commissioners chosen from each nation; but the Dutch never observed it, but on the contrary took every opportunity to extirpate the English, sparing neither massacre nor torture in effecting their purpose. The instances of Lantore and Pulo Roon in 1620, and of Amboyna in February, 1622-3, are among the most atrocious, but they are not solitary. By perseverance in these efforts, the Dutch found means to drive the English out of all the other spice islands, and plunder all the property found in their factories. The reduced state of the English company, and the distractions of the nation during the reign of Charles I., prevented any attempt from being made to regain these possessions, which remained

mained in the hands of the Dutch, until the late universal war nearly annihilated their power and commerce in the East.

Amid these hostilities and oppositions, the affairs of the Company were not so prosperous as to satisfy the subscribers, who were impatient for immediate profit; government, too, in violation of good faith, on the 14th of September, 1621, gave a charter to Sir William Heydon and to Charles Glenham, which materially invaded the rights of the company. The trade with Japan did not answer their expectations, and they were obliged to withdraw their factory. The hostility of the Portuguese in Persia also occasioned great trouble and expense. The Duke of Buckingham, in 1624, by means of his influence extorted from them 10,000*l.*, and their enemies in parliament censured their establishment with great asperity.

Although the reasonings of their adversaries were triumphantly answered, and although there was every reason to expect that their affairs would ultimately be as prosperous as could in reason be expected, yet in January, 1628, when the time limited for the duration of the second joint stock was expired, a proposal for a new subscription could not be carried into effect, and in May the price of their stock was reduced to eighty per cent. For some time, a partial trade was carried on in limited adventures, until 1631, when a third subscription was formed, but to the amount only of 420,000*l.*

On the 12th of December, 1635, King Charles granted a charter to Sir William Courten and his associates, authorizing them to send six ships, under the command of Captain Weddell, to Goa, Malabar, China, and Japan, and to trade during five years to the best advantage of themselves and all his other subjects, alleging, as a reason, that the old company had neglected planting, settling colonies, and making fortifications, for securing their trade, as the Portuguese and Dutch had done; whereby the trade had decayed, and he was disappointed of the advantages which he ought to derive from it. He directed them to send for one of their ships from the sea of Japan, in order to search for a passage home by the northern parts of the world; in consideration of which they should have half the customs and other benefits accruing from the countries to be discovered by them.

The old company petitioned in vain against this encroachment on their rights; they received soothing, though ambiguous answers; but their intelligence of the proceedings of their competitors put an end to all doubts. Two ships proceeded to the Red Sea, where they plundered a ship belonging to India, and the Mogul governor of Surat avenged himself by reprisals on the property of the original East India Company.

Three

Three other ships of the new associates proceeded to Macao, expecting to gain great advantages by availing themselves of some offers of friendship which had been held out by the Portuguese to their rivals, and by which they hoped to facilitate a trade with China. They found, however, that their proposed friends had used all their influence in prejudicing the Chinese against the English name, and amid hostility and ill will, they succeeded but imperfectly in obtaining a temporary, but did nothing toward establishing a permanent, commerce. A few sentences will comprise the further history of this pernicious and ill fated company. In their first voyage they made a small settlement on the island of Madagascar, which was afterwards demolished by the original company. They established a factory at Rajapore, in evident contradiction to that article in their own charter, which enjoined them to abstain from trading to those parts of India to which the original company's ships resorted. Their factors at Rajapore having incurred heavy debts in the country, the money on board one of their ships was seized for the benefit of their creditors. In every part of India they had to struggle against the competition and opposition of the established company, whose privileges they were invading, and also against the Dutch, the bitter and determined enemies of all Englishmen in the Oriental seas, by whom their factories were destroyed and two of their ships taken. In short, this company, set up in direct violation of the dear bought rights of an older company, though they never did any good to themselves during the short period of their existence, by their interference in the trade, and the consequences of their piratical exploits, injured the original company to the amount of 100,000*l.*, as it was estimated by the general court of the company in the year 1646. Many hundreds of their creditors in England were utterly ruined, or grievously injured, by their failure; and they themselves stated their own loss at 151,612*l.*

The troublesome times which ensued were extremely unpropitious to the company. In 1643, they could raise no greater subscription for a fourth joint stock than 105,000*l.* The captain of one of their ships, worth 20,000*l.* thought himself authorized, in obedience to the impulse of his loyalty, to carry her into Bristol, and present her to his sovereign for the support of his cause, and another vessel worth 30,000*l.* perished by shipwreck. Thus were the company's affairs brought to the very brink of ruin, although they still possessed property sufficient to satisfy all demands, and leave a considerable surplus.

In September, 1649, a new subscription was opened, but although recommended by parliament, which had then superseded

fed the royal authority, it amounted to no more than 191,700*l*. In 1651, the English took possession of the island of St. Helena, which they have ever since retained, and in the same year, the parliament gave them a charter for the trade of Guinea.

The navigation-act which passed in 1651, occasioned a war between England and Holland, and the Dutch being effectually humbled by the successful arms of Cromwell, sued for peace. Among other demands made upon them, satisfaction was required for injuries done by them to the English trade in India, Greenland, Muscovy, Brazil, or elsewhere. The company made out an account amounting to 2,795,999*l*.; and demanded the restitution of Pulo Roon and Lantore. The Dutch, who, however unsuccessful in a war of fire arms, could not easily be defeated in one of arithmetical calculations, presented a counter claim amounting to 2,919,861*l*. 3*s*. 6*d*. The commissioners to whom the accounts were referred, awarded that the Dutch should pay to the English company 83,000*l*., and a further sum of 3,615*l*. to the representatives of twelve victims at Amboyna; and Pulo Roon was given up, but before they left it, the Dutch grubbed up every spice tree in the island; and, fearing that the English company might effect a new plantation of those valuable plants, they again took it from them in 1664.

After this, the trade of the Company was, for several years, encroached on with impunity by private adventurers, but in time the public, the Protector, and even the private traders themselves, became convinced of the folly, if not of the injustice of their proceedings; and equal anxiety being expressed on all sides, a new charter passed the great seal in October, 1657, and the company began to trade anew, on a joint stock capital amounting nominally to 739,782*l*. 10*s*., although in reality only half the money was paid in. For this charter, after the Restoration, another was substituted, dated the 3d of April, 1661, which contained most of the privileges granted by that of Elizabeth, but restricted the right of voting, to proprietors of 500*l*. stock and upward. The company were freely to enjoy all plantations, forts, and factories, made or acquired by them in India, and erect new forts in India and St. Helena, and appoint governors and other officers, and also judges who should try civil and criminal causes within their jurisdictions. They were authorized to make war and peace with any people not being Christians, within the limits of their trade, and to carry out to their settlements as many men as they might think proper. They were also authorized to seize all English subjects sailing in any English or Indian vessels, or residing in India without their permission, and to send them to England.

ACQUI-

ACQUISITION OF BOMBAY. On the marriage of Charles II. in 1662, with a princess of Portugal, he received as part of his wife's portion the island of Bombay, which, in 1669, he made over to the Company, on their refunding his expenses, and paying a fee-farm rent of ten pounds.

About the same period, the Company arranged a treaty of commerce with the King of the Deccan, and established factories at Billipatan and in the island of Tywan or Formosa. In virtue of their charter, they also seized a ship, and an island called Barella, which during the suspension of their operations one Thomas Skinner a merchant of London had acquired. The matter would not be worthy of notice but for its consequences. Skinner complained to the House of Lords, who most irregularly made a decree in his favour: the Company appealed to the other branch of the legislature, who no less strenuously supported their cause, and, in the end, both Houses compromised the matter, by expunging all the proceedings from their Journals.

INTRODUCTION OF TEA. In 1669, the Company received from Bantam two canisters, containing one hundred and forty-three pounds and a-half of tea; and this is believed to have been their first importation of that article from any part of the Indies; for it does not appear that they had as yet any direct intercourse with China, the native country of tea. This trifling quantity was partly given away in presents, and partly expended in the House for the refreshment of the committees. It is hardly necessary to add, that the elegant luxury thus introduced has become a most important object in the foreign and home trade of Great Britain, and also in the domestic economy of every family in the kingdom. But it appears, that although not directly imported, it was not before unknown, or unused in England, since the liquor, not the leaf, is made an object of taxation, in a statute passed in 1660. This tax could, of course, be collected only by excisemen, which occasioned a repeal of it in 1689, and a tax of five shillings per pound on the raw article, beside the old subsidy of five per cent. on the value, was substituted. Tea was patronized at court by the Queen of Charles II., who had probably been used to it in Portugal, but it was not rapidly adopted into general use; it was not till 1721 that the quantity imported amounted to a million of pounds.

The Company went on increasing in prosperity, gaining new establishments, and their stock continually rising in value, notwithstanding the war declared against Holland, in 1672, which obliged them to arm ships and forts for their own defence, and notwithstanding some attacks on their charter in print, in parliament,

parliament, and in the courts of law, all which were ably repelled.

On October 5. 1677, the King granted the Company a new charter, containing a confirmation of their privileges, together with a power to recover damages for breach of contract from their servants and ship-owners, and authority to coin money (not resembling that of England) at Bombay and other places in India.

CHINA TRADE. In 1680 is the first notice of a ship sent by the East India Company to China, the trade of which had been monopolized by the Portuguese, until the Dutch obtained a share by means of their settlement at Formosa.

In 1682, the English were deprived by the Dutch of their settlement at Bantam, as already has been mentioned; they immediately betook themselves to one at Bencoolen, which they fortified at an expense of 250,000*l.*, and thus prevented the Dutch from monopolizing the pepper trade.

On August 9. 1683, Charles II. gave the Company a new charter, confirming all former ones, and giving them additional powers to seize all vessels trespassing upon their privilege, to exercise martial law in their garrisons in India, and to establish courts for the trial of crimes committed upon the seas, questions of insurance, and commercial disputes, in their territories.

The inhabitants of Saint Helena gave the first occasion for the exercise of these new powers. Many of them had refused to pay the taxes for support of government, set the Company's authority at defiance, and even made an attack on the fort. Some of the ringleaders were tried, and executed. In 1685 the House of Commons, upon a complaint made by some persons connected with the sufferers, voted the conduct of the Company arbitrary and illegal; and the parliamentary disapprobation threw a temporary cloud of unpopularity upon them, which did not, however, prevent their stock from rising to the high price of 500 per cent., their net annual profits being above 100,000*l.* on the average of nine years from 1676 to 1685.

Hitherto the warlike operations of the Company had been entirely confined to conflicts against the Portuguese and the Dutch in their own defence; but now they found themselves under a necessity of engaging in hostilities with Aurengzebe, the Great Mogul, one of the ablest of the monarchs who have borne that high sounding title, and, indeed, the last who possessed energy of mind, and was really a sovereign.

TRADE WITH BENGAL ESTABLISHED. In 1636 Mr. Bough-
ton, an English surgeon, having cured the daughter of the

Emperor Shah Jehan, and afterward another lady, the favourite of Mohamed Ifflam, the Nabob of Bengal, of dangerous disorders, obtained from those potentates a privilege of trade for all Englishmen who should come to Bengal. In 1640, two ships were sent out, and a factory speedily established at Hooghly, a town situated on the west branch of the Ganges, and the chief port of the province. This factory in a short time became the centre of an extensive business, spread over a fertile and populous country, which consisted not so much in selling British goods, for which the natives have little need or desire, as in purchasing the produce and manufactures of the country, for which a considerable part of the payment must be put into the hands of the contractors upon giving the orders. In this manner of conducting the trade (and there cannot possibly be any other) great sums of the Company's money were necessarily scattered over all parts of the country; and it was also necessary to erect houses and stores for lodging their servants and keeping their goods, which were quite defenceless; nothing that had the slightest appearance of fortification being allowed. The Nabob seeing the Company's servants so chained to his territory, that they could not withdraw without a ruinous abandonment of property, and finding them utterly unable to resist his power, began to treat them with grievous cruelty, oppression, and extortion. This conduct at length provoked resistance. A strong fleet was fitted out, which captured property belonging to the Mogul's subjects to the amount of a million; and in 1680, the Company's servants removed their property from Hooghly to Chitagong, under the protection of an armed force, and in defiance of the Nabob's troops.

A peace being effected, and the authority of the Mogul obtained for the establishment of the Company, they continued in possession of a factory at Soota-nutty, twenty-three miles lower than Hooghly on the east bank of the same river; but they were still opposed by the Nabob; and by the jealousy of the natives prevented from fortifying their settlement, even in the slightest degree. In 1696, the Rajahs, or native petty princes, of the country near the Hooghly river, revolted against the Mogul government, and took and plundered several towns belonging to the Nabob, while his army was at a considerable distance. On this occasion the English factory now settled at Calcutta, a village adjacent to Soota-nutty, the French at Chandernagore, and the Dutch at Chinsurah, near the south end of Hooghly, all situated on the Hooghly river; augmented their small military forces, and declared in favour of the Nabob, who now found himself obliged to desire them to defend them-

selves against the common enemy. All the three nations availed themselves of the occasion; and these were the first European settlements that were fortified in any part of the Great Mogul's dominions; for the Portuguese forts were all situated in places not conquered by the Mogul at the time of their erection. Aurengzebe sent one of his grandsons to suppress the rebellion, and superintend the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. The English factory, finding this prince fond of money, by means of presents obtained his permission, in 1698, to purchase from the Indian proprietors the villages of Soota-nutty, Calcutta, and Govindpore, extending in all about three miles along the east bank of the river, and about one mile back from it, for which they agreed to pay annually to the Nabob 1195 rupees, being the rent he received from the former proprietors. Such was the commencement of the Company's territorial possessions in Bengal. The ground, on which these villages stood, is now covered by the buildings of the flourishing city of Calcutta.

PROCEEDINGS IN PARLIAMENT. During this period, the interests of the Company were vehemently attacked by their enemies at home, and principally by those, who, in spite of experience, believed or affected to believe, that the welfare of the country required that the trade should be thrown open to all speculators. These opinions prevailed to such an extent, that in January, 1691-2, the House of Commons addressed King William to dissolve the present and incorporate a new company. The committee of the Privy Council, to whom this address was referred, proposed that the Company's present capital, which they (the Privy Council) valued at only 740,000*l.*, should be made up at least 1,500,000*l.*, but not to exceed 2,000,000*l.*; and that the new subscribers of the additional capital, together with the present members, should be incorporated for twenty-one years. They also drew up a scheme containing two-and-thirty propositions for the management of the affairs of the proposed new association. The Company, in their answer to the proposal of the Privy Council, averred that their present stock was worth much more than 1,500,000*l.*; they asserted that their forts and territories in India, which had cost them above 1,000,000*l.*, were their property for ever: and they affirmed that the intended regulations were better provided for by their present charter, and their own practice, than by the new propositions. On November 14. the King sent Sir Edward Seymour to lay before the House of Commons the propositions of the Privy Council, and the Company's answers to them, together with the opinion of the Judges, which was, that the Company could not legally be dissolved without three years'

years' notice, and that no other company could begin their operations before the expiration of those three years. The House, after many warm debates upon the subject, at last presented an address of the whole House to the King (February 25. 1692-3), praying that he would dissolve the Company upon three years' notice; to which his Majesty answered, on the 2d of March, that he would consider their address. In a few days after giving this answer he prorogued the parliament.

In that session, a tax had been imposed on their capital, payable at certain days, one of which payments had been neglected, and was not made till two days afterward. This circumstance gave some alarm; but the Company in October, 1693, obtained a renewal of their charter, with a full restoration of all the powers and privileges conferred on them by former charters, subject to some subsequent regulations, to be made by the King, for the management of their affairs. Two sets of regulations were published in 1693 and 1694, affecting the government of the Company in several important particulars; limiting the duration of their charter to twenty-one years, with the addition, that if found unprofitable to the crown or the realm, it might be revoked at any time on three years' notice.

SCOTCH COMPANY. In 1693, William patronised a project for enabling the Parliament of Scotland to form a trade from that country to Africa, America, or any other part of the world. The parliament accordingly, on the plan of Mr. Paterfon, who had projected the Banks of England and of Scotland, passed an act for incorporating the Company of Scotland trading to Africa and the Indies. The sum proposed to be raised was a million, but the subscribers in England and Holland having been induced to withdraw their support from the scheme, no greater sum than 400,000*l.* was raised. With the means thus afforded, a successful and advantageous establishment was formed on the Isthmus of Darien; but the remonstrances of Spain, reinforced, or rather, as it is said, excited by King William's subjects in Holland, and strongly supported by the friends of the English East India Company, procured a suppression of this establishment; and the Scottish subscribers received back their principal and interest out of the equivalent money paid at the Union.

During the war which was terminated by the peace of Ryfwick, in 1697, commercial property was so ill protected, that the Company sustained many heavy losses at sea; separate traders licensed by ministry interfering with their interests, and

other circumstances contributing also to their distress, they were unable for several years to make any dividends.

NEW COMPANY FORMED. In this difficulty their prosperity received another severe injury by the establishment, under authority of parliament, in 1698, of a rival company, called "the English Company trading to the East Indies," or in more familiar and compendious language "the New Company," with privilege of trading to India for ever, saving the rights of the old company for the period mentioned in their charter. They had also power to grant licenses to individuals; and each subscriber who did not trade upon the joint stock, retained his right to be sole trader. To obtain this favour, two millions were lent to government at eight per cent. and the stock subscribed amounted to two millions. The project began in difficulty, and proceeded without honour or advantage. The forts, factories, and privileges, acquired by the old Company in India, were their undoubted property: and there was not one word in the act of parliament respecting any sale or conveyance of them. They might dispose of them at their pleasure to any foreign company. They had also an undoubted right, confirmed by the new act, to enjoy the trade during three years; and at the expiration of that term, if any of their debts were remaining unpaid, they were obliged still to remain in a corporate capacity for the purpose of collecting their funds, and winding up their affairs. The old company, as a more effectual means of securing a continuance of their India trade, had directed Mr. Dubois, their treasurer, to subscribe 315,000*l.* in the new stock, whereby they had a larger interest in it than any other subscriber, whether a body corporate or an individual: and, for further security, they obtained an act of parliament in 1701, whereby they were authorized to continue a body corporate and politic, under their old name, until government should redeem the new capital stock of two millions.

There were now three, or rather four, sets of English merchants, with contending and interfering interests, all authorized by law to trade to India.

1. The old company. 2. The new company. 3. A few subscribers of the general society, who chose to trade each for himself. 4. The separate traders, who were so far legalized, that all the ships they had sent out before the 1st of July, 1698, had a right to prosecute the trade during the continuance of one voyage, which might be made to include many trading voyages in India, and to return to England at such time as should be most convenient for themselves.

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As no fewer than sixty ships are said to have been employed by all these rivals, the irregular state of the trade, which immediately ensued, occasioned an excessive exportation of bullion, and also of merchandize; and the inevitable consequence of the violent collision of the jarring interests in India, was a depreciation of European goods, and an enhancement of the prices of India goods; ruinous, not only to the importers, but also to the English manufacturers of London, Norwich, Coventry, and other places, whose fabrics were almost universally superseded by the wrought silks, bengals, mixed stuffs, and figured calicoes of India, China, and Persia.

THE COMPANIES INCORPORATED. It would be no less tedious than useless to detail the evils which flowed from this system. A prohibitory act against the use of certain fabrics of India was passed in 1700; and in 1702, after many difficulties, the two companies were incorporated.

In 1707, in consideration of a new loan to government of 1,200,000*l.* without interest, the privilege of exclusive trade to India was prolonged until the 25th of March, 1726, with three years' notice after that day of the intention of government to pay off the loan of 3,200,000*l.*; on which being done, the charter was to cease. The companies were then to be perfectly united, under one body of directors, and styled "the United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies."

It is proper to observe, that when the company were obliged to raise, and pay into the exchequer, the sum of 1,200,000*l.* the legal interest of money in England was six per cent.; and that they paid that large sum merely for an addition of not quite fifteen years to the term of their privilege. Of their capital of 3,200,000*l.* they had not one penny to carry on their trade with, the whole being lent to government, and the last sum without any interest. The whole benefit derived to their trade from their capital, so invested in the national debt, was, that it served as a fund of credit, whereby they were perhaps the better enabled to borrow the sums necessary for carrying on their trade; and, in fact, as they had lent their whole capital to government, they could only trade with borrowed money.

The united company soon began to show signs of prosperity; they made, in 1709, a dividend of five per cent., which was progressively advanced till 1711, when it became ten per cent., and at that point it continued until 1722.

PROCEEDINGS IN INDIA. During this period, Jaffier Khan, the Nabob of Bengal, envious at the growing prosperity of the company's settlement at Calcutta, contrived, in defiance of the grants of the Emperor, to oppress the English by every species of vexation and extortion. The Company directed the presi-

dencies of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, to join in a representation of their grievances, and a petition for redress, to be presented, together with a splendid present, to Furrukshir, the Great Mogul, by ambassadors to be deputed by the governor of Calcutta. The embassy arrived at Delhi, the imperial residence, in July, 1715, and were obliged to wait for the lingering determination of the Emperor, or rather of his ministers, till July, 1717, when advices from Surat of the English factory being withdrawn from that place on account of the impositions upon trade, together with the expectation of a strong British fleet in the Indian seas, and the apprehension of a repetition of the distress brought upon the trade of that place by a fleet in 1687, determined the court to grant all their requests, which were written at large in mandates addressed to the Nabobs of Bengal and Guzerat, and the Subahdar of the Deccan, and sealed with the Emperor's seal.

By the imperial mandates and patents, in all thirty-four, now obtained, the cargoes of English ships which might be wrecked were exempted from plunder. In consideration of a fixed sum to be paid to the Mogul's governor at Surat, the Company's trade was exempted from duties, and from the visitations and extortions of officers. The rupees coined at Bombay and Madras were to be received in payment of the Mogul's revenue. Three villages contiguous to Madras, taken from the Company by the Nabob of Arcot, were restored. The island of Diu, or Divi, near Masulipatnam, was made over to the Company for an annual rent of 7000 pagodas. All persons indebted to the Company in Bengal, whether Europeans or natives, were to be delivered to the presidency at Calcutta. Three days in the week were allowed for the coinage of the Company's money in the mint at Muxadabad. A dustuck (passport) from the president at Calcutta was to exempt the goods specified in it from being searched by the revenue officers. The Company were authorized to purchase thirty-seven towns, situated on both sides of the Hooghly river, on terms similar to those on which they had purchased Calcutta and the two adjacent villages.

This extensive grant of privileges and accommodations was considered as the Company's commercial charter, as long as they stood in need of protection from the princes of the country. The orders addressed to the Nabob of Guzerat and the Subahdar of the Deccan, were duly respected by them. But Jaffier Khan, who perceived that the possession of the towns upon the banks of the Hooghly would enable the Company to command the navigation of the river, by erecting batteries on both sides of it, completely frustrated the Emperor's grant for the purchase of them, by threatening the proprietors with his
vengeance

vengeance if they accepted any proposal for that purpose, made to them by the Company's servants.

In 1716, the establishment of an Ostend East India Company threatened to interfere with the prosperity of that in London; but it being found that much of the capital, and even the ships and goods with which this trade was carried on, were furnished by British subjects, means were taken, both by proclamation and act of parliament, to check this disposition to indirect invasion of the Company's rights; and if not entirely prevented, the illicit commerce was at least considerably restrained. The national delusion in 1720, (the South Sea year) raised East India stock, for a time, to the enormous price of 445 per cent., although the dividend was then no more than ten per cent.; but the Company having no share in any of the projects of the day, its prosperity was not affected by their failure.

In 1730, great efforts were made by a large association of merchants in London, Bristol, Liverpool, and other places, to induce parliament to supersede the existing East India Company, and grant an exclusive charter to the new projectors; the Company prevented this project from taking effect by paying into the exchequer 200,000*l.* without interest or reimbursement, and reducing the interest on their old debt of 3,200,000*l.* from five to four per cent. As a necessary consequence, their dividends were reduced at Christmas 1732, to seven per cent., at which point they continued till Midsummer 1743, when they were increased to eight. In 1744, they advanced to government another million at three per cent.; and in 1750, in consequence of the general reduction of interest on the national debt, that due on their portion of it was reduced first to three and a half, and afterward to three per cent. Parliament gave them a power, of which they availed themselves, to raise 2,299,440*l.* 5*s.* at three per cent.; and in consequence of the defalcation of their annual income, their dividends were reduced from eight to six per cent.

CHANGES IN INDIA. It now becomes necessary to cast a rapid glance on the revolutions in India, which, by obliging the Company to act as a warlike, as well as a commercial community, have, by a succession of extraordinary and unexpected events, thrown into their hands such a large portion of territory, as places them at least on a level, in respect to the number and opulence of the people living under their government, with the greatest sovereigns of Asia, the Emperor of China only excepted.

After the death of Aurengzebe, the dominion of the Great Mogul over his subahdars and nabobs, the delegated governors and collectors of provinces became more and more

feeble ; and these agents of the supreme power, affecting independency, claimed a right of hereditary succession and personal dominion in those offices and territories over which they had originally only a limited and accountable authority. The diminution of the power and authority of the Mogul, in consequence of the invasion of Thamas Kouli Khan, in 1739, facilitated the ambitious designs of the subahdars and nabobs, who attained a real dominion and independence, although they still verbally acknowledged the supremacy of their natural lord.

During the distractions which were thus occasioned, the English and French became military powers. In 1746, the two nations being at war, the French forces from Pondicherry captured Madras ; but it was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. The extent to which the arming of these two powers had proceeded in the war, totally altered their consideration in the eyes of the natives. From being viewed as mere traders, feebly subjected to the caprice of every subordinate tyrant, they grew to be regarded as firmly established territorial governments, not inferior in power to the native princes, and far superior in all the arts of warfare ; and their alliance was courted accordingly.

In 1749, the English assisted Saujohee, a deposed king of Tanjore, in an attempt to regain his dominions, he offering to cede to them the town and district of Devicotah, and to pay the expences of the war, when he should obtain possession of his dominions. They did not succeed to the extent of his wishes, but they compelled his rival, Pratoop-Sing, to allow him a pension, to pay the expence of the expedition, and to cede Devicotah, with a district of the annual value of 9,000 pagodas, to the Company.

This interference by the servants of a trading company might be deemed irregular, but the French had afforded them more than a precedent. Upon the death of Nizam-al-Muluk, the subahdar of the Deccan, in 1748, the succession became an object of contention between two of his near relatives. Both applied to M. Dupleix, governor of Pondicherry ; and by extensive promises, one obtained his effectual assistance ; and, being established as subahdar, rewarded the services of his French ally, by constituting him his deputy-governor of the whole country south of the river Kristnah, in extent not much inferior to the kingdom of France, comprehending several nabobships, and yielding a vast revenue ; and he also granted to the French East India Company the property of considerable territories adjacent to their settlements, and yielding large revenues. Murzafa-Jing, whose elevation had been thus secured, was
killed

killed in a skirmish during a triumphant progress through his dominions; and the French immediately conferred the succession on his eldest son, Salabat-Jing.

The English presidency took little or no concern in the events of this war, till the year 1751, when they were provoked by an arrogant display of flags, set up by Dupleix in his new territory, and even upon the English company's lands contiguous to Fort Saint David. Considering this as an act of hostility against themselves, they determined to support Mohamed-Ally in his claim to the dominion of Arcot, and immediately sent him as large a reinforcement as they could spare, under the command of Captain Gingen; and soon after another detachment followed, commanded by Captain Clive, a self-taught warrior, who had originally been appointed to the civil service of the company. On the first of September, Clive took the fort of Arcot, in which he found effects to the value of 50,000*l.* lodged there for security by the merchants of the country, to whom he restored them without any ransom, and thereby acquired the esteem and good-will of the natives to himself and his nation. In a few days he was besieged by the increased forces of Chunda-Saheb and his French auxiliaries; and his defence of this Indian fort was of the highest order of military achievements. It would be tedious to narrate all the battles, sieges, and assassinations of this desolating warfare, in the course of which scarcely any military conduct or fortitude was displayed, or any action of consequence performed, on either side, but by the European auxiliaries.

In 1753, the directors of the East India Company, alarmed at the new and dangerous situation of their affairs in India, solicited government to assist them, either to finish or carry on the war, their own forces being unable to contend with those of the French company, supported by their government. A negotiation was thereupon commenced with France, which sent two commissioners to London to terminate the matter amicably. The British ministry, thinking that the French commissioners used artful delays, ordered a squadron of ships of war, with a regiment of soldiers, to sail for India; and the French speedily agreed that all matters in dispute should be adjusted in India, by commissioners deputed from the two companies, who should draw up a conditional treaty, subject to revival in Europe; and as it was apprehended that Dupleix would not be very cordial in promoting pacific measures, Mr. Godeheu, a director of the French East India company, was appointed to supersede him in the government of Pondicherry.

On

On the 2d of August, 1754, M. Godeheu arrived at Pondicherry. He immediately opened a correspondence with Mr. Saunders, the English governor of Madras. By the end of the year, Mr. Saunders and M. Godeheu had drawn up a provisional treaty for restoring peace to the Carnatic, whereby it was agreed, that both companies should renounce Mogul governments and dignities, and all interference in Indian politics. The English company should retain Madras, Fort Saint David, and Devicotah, with their districts, and some other places of inferior importance; the French should possess Pondicherry and Karical, with their districts, and some other places, respecting which future arrangements should be concerted for the purpose of bringing the possessions of the two companies to an equality, and no new forts should be built by either party. The prisoners should be exchanged as far as the French could deliver English prisoners; and both parties should unite, if necessary, to compel their Indian allies to keep the peace, or rather truce.

The presence of a squadron of ships, under the command of Admiral Watson, sent by the British Government to the coast of Coromandel, is supposed to have considerably promoted the conclusion of the treaty. That object being accomplished, and there being a prospect of tranquillity, the ships made several trips before the month of February, 1756, when they were employed in destroying a horde of pirates established on a tract of coast between Bombay and Goa, and governed by chiefs who successively took the name of Angria. These freebooters had reigned above seventy years, the tremendous and invincible scourge of the navigators of all nations who ventured to approach the coast of Malabar; and their extirpation was justly viewed as a service not less important to the Indian governments, than to the European traders.

In 1756, Salabat-Jing had rewarded the services of the French with territories amounting in value to 300,000*l.*, while his rival, Mohamed-Ally, had only been able to confer on the English lands of the annual value of 80,000*l.*; a remuneration far below the expence to which they had been put by the war. At this time, by one of those sudden revolutions in politics which are not uncommon in India, Salabat-Jing became desirous of getting rid of his French friends, and sent an agent to the Presidency of Madras, requesting them to send forces to assist him in driving the French out of his dominions.

The Presidency were prevented from attempting this desirable enterprise, by the state of their own affairs in Bengal, where

where Surajah Dowlah, the Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, had nearly destroyed their settlement.

In this prince, a naturally cruel disposition, meanness, stupidity, and habitual drunkenness, were joined with the vices usual in the character of the most worthless of the Oriental despots. Immediately after his accession, he began to harass and levy contributions upon all the European settlements in his dominions; but was particularly exasperated against the English Presidency of Calcutta, because one of his subjects, flying from his tyranny, had been received into the town. On the 18th of June, 1756, he besieged Calcutta, which had scarcely any means of defence, and on the 20th got possession of it. Enraged at finding only 50,000 rupees in the treasury, and pretending that a much more valuable property was buried under ground, as a punishment for the concealment, he crammed one hundred and forty-six of the principal inhabitants into an apartment not twenty feet square, which, having been used as the prison of the garrison, was therefore called the *Black Hole*, where the intolerable heat, the night being uncommonly sultry, killed them all, except twenty-three, who were allowed next morning to come out. After receiving the congratulations of his courtiers upon his glorious achievement, and leaving a garrison of 3000 men in Calcutta, he returned to his capital, elated with the belief that he had completely exterminated the English.

Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive soon arrived to relieve their countrymen. Calcutta was retaken and fortified. Surajah Dowlah was glad to make peace; and on the 9th of February he swore upon the Koran to preserve it inviolably. The articles were; that the Company should have full enjoyment of all the privileges granted to them by the Emperor Furrukshir; their settlements, and the property plundered from them, to be restored; and they at liberty to fortify Calcutta, and establish a mint.

There was reason to hope that tranquillity would now be re-established: but in a few days after signing the treaty, Surajah sent letters to Bussy, the French general in the Deccan, inviting him to come to Bengal, and assist him in rooting out the English Company; and also to Law, the commander of a small party of French fugitives, who had been in his service, ordering him to return and join his army.

Surajah's delay in executing the articles of the peace, and his evasions, proved that he had no intention to be in friendship with the Presidency; and it became necessary to consider of means to counteract his perfidy. Two of the chief men of his court, disgusted by his capricious tyranny, had, each separately

separately, made application for the assistance of the English forces to depose Surajah Dowlah, and to set himself in his place. Of these the Governor and Council gave the preference to Mir Jaffier; and a treaty was executed, by which he engaged, that as soon as he should be established as Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, he would confirm the articles agreed to by Surajah Dowlah. The enemies of either party, whether Indians or Europeans, should be the enemies of both. All the French factories should remain in possession of the English Company, and the French should never more be permitted to settle in any part of his dominions. He would pay a crore of rupees, as a compensation for the damages sustained by the Company when Calcutta was taken by Surajah Dowlah; he would pay fifty lacks to the English inhabitants of Calcutta, seven lacks to the Armenian merchants, and twenty lacks to the other inhabitants, as compensations for their losses upon that occasion.* The territory of the Company contiguous to Calcutta was to be enlarged, and particularly to the southward it should be extended along the side of the river down to Culpee, they paying the usual rent to the Government; and he engaged to build no new forts on the river lower than Hooghly. The English forces, when in the service of the Subahdar, should be maintained by him. In addition to these articles of the treaty, he promised large donations to the soldiers and seamen.

Colonel Clive immediately put his little army, consisting of only 900 Europeans and 2200 Indian soldiers, in motion; and on the 23d June, Surajah, with an army of 50,000 foot and 18,000 horse, with fifty pieces of cannon, and assisted by forty Frenchmen, who directed the management of the artillery, was totally overthrown in the memorable battle of Plassy, whence the conqueror proceeded to Muxadabab, then the capital of Bengal, and invested Mir Jaffier. The wretched Surajah fled from his palace in a mean disguise, on the night after the battle, and being soon after discovered, by means of a poor man whom he had treated barbarously, he was ignominiously conveyed back to the palace, in one of the most miserable apartments of which he was murdered, by order of Miran, the son of Jaffier, a youth nearly as wicked as Surajah himself.

This important revolution, beside the benefit it produced to the general affairs of the company, afforded to individuals the means of enriching themselves both by plunder and by illicit trade up the country, in the use of which they dis-

* A lack is a hundred thousand, and a crore is a hundred lacks, or ten millions.

played no forbearance. Colonel Clive having returned to Europe, his successors in power, yielding to representations connected with their own interest, as well as to some suggestions of treachery and unfitness in Mir Jaffier, deposed him in 1760, and set up in his stead his son-in-law Mohamed Cossim Ally Khan. As an indemnification for the expences incurred by the Company in his exaltation, and in maintaining forces for his protection, he ceded to them the districts of Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chitagong; and engaged to pay up the balance of the sum stipulated with Mir Jaffier, and to fulfil all the covenants entered into by that prince. This was a happy change to the inhabitants of Burdwan and Midnapore, countries situated on the west side of the river Hooghly, who had long been harassed by the predatory incursions of the Mahratta freebooters occupying the adjoining country, and have ever since enjoyed tranquillity under the protection of the Company's government.

The elevation of Cossim, far from answering the expectations of its projectors, had nearly ruined the English affairs. He became a severe oppressor, an active and insidious enemy. He laid the inland trade under great impediments, murdered some gentlemen who were sent to him on a deputation, and massacred the whole factory at Patna. The Presidency, thus obliged to take up arms, deposed him, in 1763: he fled, with his treasures, into the territory of the Nabob of Oude. A war ensued with that potentate, which terminated in 1765, by his surrendering himself and his dominions to the disposal of Lord (late Colonel) Clive, who had recently arrived from England, with full authority to rectify the mal-administration in India. This nobleman and General Carnac concluded a treaty with Sujah-ul-Dowlah, by which they generously restored to him the whole of his dominions, except the provinces of Corah and Allahabad; and of these they did not seek to make any advantage, either for themselves or for the Company.

About the same period, Mir Jaffier dying, bequeathed his dominions to his natural son Nijum Dowlah, to the exclusion of his grandson, the offspring of Miran. The Presidency supported this nomination, and established Nijum, entering into a treaty with him, dated the 20th of February, 1765, whereby they engaged to secure him in the Subahdary, and also to keep up such a force as should be necessary to support him in it. The Subahdar, on his part, bound himself to fulfil all the agreements entered into by his father; to receive a resident from Calcutta to be constantly with him, and to keep one from himself constantly at Calcutta, and also to put the chief

chief management of his affairs into the hands of Mohamed Reza Khan, a person recommended by the Governor and Council; to keep no greater military force than should be required for the support of his dignity and the collection of the revenue, to admit no Europeans into his service; and not to permit the French to erect any fortifications in his country.

At the same time these able statesmen conferred on Shah Aulum, the Mogul Emperor, who before had been deprived of all his revenues, and kept in disgraceful captivity, the provinces of Korah and Allahabad, yielding an annual revenue of twenty-seven lacks of rupees, to which they added a settled income of twenty-six lacks, to be derived, in consequence of a new arrangement, from the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, the payment of which should be secured by the Company.

In gratitude for this important acquisition of real dominion and assured income, the Emperor gave the Company five firmans, all dated on the 12th of August, 1765, whereby he formally made over to them for ever the dewannee, or right of collecting for their own use the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, subject to the payment of an income of twenty-six lacks of rupees to himself, and a provision for the proper support of the Subahdar's court, they being also bound to keep up an army sufficient for the protection of the provinces. He also confirmed to them the absolute property of the districts of the Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chitagong, and the lands adjacent to Calcutta, formerly acquired from the Subahdars.

Having effected these important services, and quelled a mutiny in the army which threatened fatal consequences, Lord Clive returned to England, to encounter, instead of the strains of gratitude and the shouts of admiration, the clamours of malevolence, and the taunts of envy and detraction, amid which he terminated his days, under circumstances little corresponding with the extent of his merits, and the magnitude of his services.

In the course of the war between Great Britain and France, which was ended in February, 1763, the French destroyed the Company's factory at Bender-Abassi, or Gombroon, in the Persian Gulf; they surprised Fort Marlborough near Bencoolen, in Sumatra, which they retained till the peace; and they also took Fort St. David and some other places belonging to the Company. But, on the other hand, the French were deprived of all their inferior settlements on the coast of India, and at last, in 1761, of Pondicherry, the most important and flourishing of the whole, to which the property of the French

Company and individuals had been carried from the other settlements, as to a place of security; and by the loss of that capital, the commercial prosperity and power of the French East India Company, which had for some time been exceedingly great and splendid, were nearly annihilated. The fortifications and houses of Pondicherry were destroyed soon after it was taken, as a retaliation for similar conduct of General Lally at Fort St. David; and at the peace it was restored in that desolate condition to the French, as were also the other factories they possessed before the year 1749 in Coromandel, Malabar, Orissa, and Bengal, in which latter province they were restricted by the treaty of peace concluded in Europe, as well as by agreement with the Subahdar, from making any fortifications, or having any garrisons.

PROCEEDINGS AT HOME. In the period of peace which preceded the American war, the India House was divided by violent factions; an attempt was made to raise the dividends to a deceptive height, on the supposition that the fortunate adjustment of affairs in India would afford extravagant returns of profit. But it was soon found that mal-administration, joined with many other inevitable causes, forbade the cherishing of hopes, even far more moderate. A war with the native powers terminated disadvantageously; a famine resulting from, or at least increased by an oppressive speculation in rice, the injudicious administration of the ceded lands, and many other circumstances, brought the affairs of the Company to a very critical and dangerous state. Committees of the House of Commons were appointed to inspect their affairs; dividends were not to be ordered by sudden acclamation, but on five months' notice, and the Company were restricted for a time from declaring any above 10 per cent. These restrictions were enforced by acts of parliament in 1767 and 1769, and the Company became liable for several years to make an annual payment to government of 400,000*l.*, in consideration of which their territorial revenues were continued to them for the same number of years.

SUPERVISORS SENT OUT. Three gentlemen, Messrs. Vansittart, Scrafton, and Ford, were sent out as supervisors, to rectify the abuses prevalent in India, but the vessel which carried them was lost, and no intelligence was ever received of the manner, time, or place of the catastrophe.

The Company, in 1770, increased the dividend to twelve, and afterward to twelve-and-a-half per cent.; but, in 1772, were obliged to lower it to six. The mismanagement, profusion, and oppressive acts, of some of their servants, the great sums remitted from Bengal to China, and the heavy annual drain of
400,000*l.*

400,000*l.* paid to government, had hitherto rendered the acquisition beneficial only to the individuals in their service in India, and at home only to the state. Though their commerce had, for many years, been in a very flourishing condition, the debt owing to government for the deficiency of the duty upon tea, the great amount of the bills drawn upon them from India, and their debts to the Bank and the Custom House, had not only obliged them to make a great and sudden reduction of their dividend, and rendered it impossible to make the stipulated payment to government, but also reduced them to the unfortunate necessity of applying to Parliament for pecuniary assistance.

INTERFERENCE OF PARLIAMENT. In consequence of this application, though not without much opposition, two acts were passed in 1773 for regulating the affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By the first, the Directors, hitherto chosen annually, were to continue four years in office, six new ones being elected every year. No person from India was eligible to the office of director, till two years after his return. No proprietor of less than *one thousand pounds* of the Company's stock, held for at least twelve months, permitted to vote. The government of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, was vested in a Governor-General, with a salary of 25,000*l.* a year, and four counsellors, with salaries of 10,000*l.* a year each; and Warren Hastings, Esq. was appointed the first governor-general. The presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen, were rendered subordinate to that of Bengal. A supreme court of judicature was established at Calcutta, consisting of a chief justice with 8,000*l.* a-year, and three other judges with 6,000*l.* a-year each, all appointed by the crown. The salaries of the governor-general, the counsellors and the judges, were charged upon the territorial revenue. No person in the King's or the Company's service was permitted to accept any presents; but lawyers, medical men, and clergymen, might receive their customary fees. The governor-general, counsellors, and judges were prohibited from having any concern in trade; and no person, residing in the Company's settlements, was allowed to take more than twelve per cent. for a year's interest of money.

The other act sanctioned an advance of 1,400,000*l.* in exchequer bills to the Company, at an interest of four per cent., and agreed to forego the claim of 400,000*l.* a-year from the territorial revenue till the debt should be discharged. The Company were restricted from making dividends above six per cent. till the debt should be discharged, after which they were allowed to divide seven per cent. till their bond debt should be reduced to 1,500,000*l.* They were required to present a state
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of their accounts every half year to the lords of the treasury, and restricted from accepting bills from India to the amount of more than 300,000*l.* in a-year.

The extension of trade to China had rendered tea the staple commodity of the Company, but the high duties rendered it also the staple commodity of smugglers in all parts of the world, and the large stock on hand was extremely detrimental to the Company. After trying some temporary expedients, Parliament, in the same session in which the two acts above mentioned were passed, licensed them to export tea to the British colonies in America, and allowing the whole custom duty to be drawn back on tea so exported, notwithstanding the law obliging them to make all their sales in this kingdom; provided that there should be at least ten millions of pounds left in their warehouses for home consumption. This measure, however well intended, was infinitely detrimental to the Company and the nation. The Americans destroyed the cargoes on their arrival, and from this act commenced that course of hostility which, after a long war, separated those colonies from the parent state.

FURTHER ACQUISITIONS. In 1775, the Company acquired the province of Benares, by a treaty with Azuf-ul-Dowlah, the new Nabob of Oude. In the following year, they obtained a confirmation of the property of Salsette, a fertile island adjacent to Bombay, which their troops had taken from the Mahrattas in the year 1773; and in 1777, the debt owing to government being completely paid, the Company raised their dividend to seven, and the next year to eight per cent.

CAPTURES FROM THE FRENCH. In 1778, the French joined the revolted colonies of Great Britain. As this event had been foreseen, the East India Company had sent directions to all their presidencies to be prepared for acting vigorously, as soon as they should have notice of the commencement of hostilities. It so happened, that the notice was conveyed to India so very speedily, that in the month of July the French Company were deprived of all their settlements in Bengal and Coromandel, except Pondicherry, which, after a gallant defence, also submitted to the British arms on the 16th of October. Many French ships were also taken during this short, but very active campaign, the events of which totally extinguished the commerce and power of the French East India Company.

PROCEEDINGS AT HOME. The Company having discharged the debt owing to the public, and also reduced their bond debt to 1,500,000*l.*, the public again became entitled to the stipulated participation of the territorial revenue. But parliament resolved to leave it entire to them till the 5th of April,

1780, on condition only that their dividend should not exceed eight per cent. before that day.

In 1779 the Company built, rigged, and armed three capital ships of war of seventy-four guns each, which they presented to government, and they also gave a large sum of money in bounties to six thousand seamen for the service of the navy. Nor was it only by their own donations that they augmented the national force; their patriotic example was followed by several other societies, who also contributed ships and men upon scales proportioned to their abilities. About the same time, the minister gave them notice, that the debt of 4,200,000*l.* due from government, should be paid off on the 5th April, 1783, and their exclusive privilege abolished, unless they would agree to pay a million, restrict their future dividends to eight per cent., and become bound to pay three-fourths of the surplus profits over that dividend into the Exchequer. The Company refusing to accede to the minister's demand, even when reduced to 600,000*l.* for the renewal, it was at last settled, that they should pay 400,000*l.*, in full of all claims of the public upon them to the first of March, 1781; and their exclusive commercial privileges and territorial possessions were continued to them till the first of March, 1791, with three years' notice after that day. After payment of all charges and of a dividend of eight per cent., three-fourths of the surplus profits were to be paid into the Exchequer, and the remaining fourth might be employed in increasing the dividend, by sums not exceeding one per cent. in any one year, nor ever to rise above twelve and a half per cent. The Company, also, finding a surplus of 288,025*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.* above the 400,000*l.* they were obliged to pay to government, did not distribute it in dividends or add it to their general stock, but employed it in trade and placed it to a distinct account, under the title of the Company's separate fund.

The government of Mr. Hastings was embarrassed by disputes between the Supreme Council and the Supreme Court. To put a stop to the miseries flowing from the contentions of the jarring authorities, and to protect the natives from the distresses arising from the execution of laws unsuitable and inapplicable to their manners, religion, and way of life, another act was passed, in 1781, for restricting the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, in which it was particularly provided, that the Mohamedans and Hindoos should have the benefits of their own laws, and that the authorities of fathers and masters of families should be preserved inviolate, according to their usages and the rules of their casts.

WAR

WAR IN INDIA. The Company's ally, the Nabob of Arcot, and also their own possessions and commerce in the south parts of Hindostan, had long been harassed by a war with Hyder Ally, an enterprising adventurer, who, by the exertion of military talents much superior to the usual standard of Mohamedan commanders in India, and by judiciously abstaining from risking his undisciplined army in pitched battles against European troops, had raised himself from a low station to the sovereignty of Myfore and other extensive provinces. This redoubtable enemy had formerly reduced the Presidency of Madras and the Nabob to the humiliating necessity of accepting a peace dictated by himself; but a continuance of peace with the Company was not consistent with his ambitious politics. Having secured a powerful assistance from the Mahrattas and some inferior Indian princes, and attracted to his service a pretty considerable body of French officers and soldiers, he renewed the war, defeated a British army, took the city of Arcot, ravaged the country, and threw the Company's servants and allies into the greatest distress, which continued till Admiral Sir Edward Hughes and General Sir Eyre Coote arrived. These able commanders turned the tide of victory; in October, 1781, the Berar Mahrattas were detached from their alliance with Hyder Ally by the judicious management of Mr. Hastings; and in May, 1782, the Poonah Mahrattas entered into a friendly and liberal treaty with the Company. Thus was the formidable confederacy of princes, which threatened the extinction of the British name in India, dissolved, and Hyder left with scarcely any assistance, except what he obtained from the French, whose fleet was repeatedly encountered by Sir Edward Hughes. The implacable enmity against the Company, which influenced all the actions and policy of Hyder, was not terminated, nor even suspended by his death, which happened in the end of the year 1782, but was inherited along with his dominions by his son Tippoo Saib. In March, 1784, this fierce war was terminated, chiefly by the secession of the French auxiliaries, when they were informed of the peace in Europe. Each party restored the forts and territories taken from the other; Tippoo gave up all pretensions to the Carnatic; and he engaged to allow the Company all the commercial privileges in his dominions, which had been promised by his father.

MR. FOX'S INDIA BILLS. Parliament having been much engaged in the consideration of the affairs of India, Mr. Fox, then one of the secretaries of state, brought into parliament, in November, 1783, a bill for vesting the affairs of the East India Company in the hands of seven noblemen and gentlemen,

as principal directors, assisted by nine others, who should be proprietors of East India stock, holding not less than 2,000*l.* each. He proposed, at the same time, another bill for preventing arbitrary and despotic proceedings in the administration of the territorial possessions. The details of these bills are not given here; they were vehemently opposed in and out of parliament, and after passing the Commons were rejected by the Lords; and their rejection was followed by the dismissal of the ministry.

MR. PITT'S BILLS. In January, 1784, Mr. Pitt, then recently appointed First Lord of the Treasury, brought in a bill for the better government of India, which was rejected by the House of Commons; but Parliament having been dissolved, he brought in an improved bill, which passed in August, 1784, and forms the basis of the present government of India.

It established a board of commissioners for superintending and controlling the civil and military government and revenues of the territorial possessions, and also the affairs of the East India Company. The governor-general and council of Calcutta were to retain the controlling power over the other presidencies. Persons going out to India in the civil or military service of the Company must not be under fifteen nor above twenty-two years of age, with an exception for the military service in favour of officers who have served at least one year in the army or militia. Presents were prohibited as in former acts. All persons returned from India must give an inventory of their property into the Court of Exchequer.* The remaining sections of the act direct the method of proceeding against British subjects, accused of extortion or other misdemeanours committed in India.

COMMUTATION ACT. In the same session, the attention of the legislature was called to the smuggling of tea, which was found to prevail to an astonishing extent. It appeared that the average annual importation by ships belonging to the Company was 5,639,939 pounds, and that by ships belonging to the rest of Europe 13,198,202 pounds, while the average consumption was nearly the reverse of these quantities, being in the British dominions 13,338,140 pounds, and on the continent of Europe at most, 5,500,000 pounds. It followed that that three-fifths of the tea used in England must be obtained by smuggling, and it was known that several millions of pounds of the leaves of sloe, ash, and other trees, were sold for tea, whereby the probable total amount of real and factitious tea

* This inquisitorial section was repealed by 26 Geo. III. c. 57.

consumed in the British dominions was raised to about eighteen millions of pounds, whereof it appeared that the enormous quantity of near thirteen millions must have consisted of smuggled and counterfeit tea. To remedy the evident evils which flowed from this abuse, the existing duties on tea were all repealed, and instead of them was imposed one of twelve and a half per cent. on the sale price, and exportation was allowed duty free. To make up for the deficiency of revenue, a new tax was imposed on windows, and this was popularly called the Commutation Act. The Company seconded the efforts of the government by purchasing 17,312,484 pounds of tea from the companies on the continent; thus removing the temptation to get rid of it by contraband trade: the good consequences of the new system were immediately evident.

IMPEACHMENT OF MR. HASTINGS. In 1787, the House of Commons voted the impeachment of Warren Hastings, Esq. for high crimes and misdemeanours: the trial of this gentleman lasted, at intervals, until the 23d of April, 1795, when the lords acquitted him of all the charges. The Company in consideration of his long, faithful, and important services, discharged the expences of his defence, amounting to upwards of 70,000*l.* and settled upon him an annual income of 5,000*l.*

PRIVATE TRADE ALLOWED. For several years before the beginning of the war in 1793, the Company continued to extend their trade, particularly with China, and they were enabled by parliament to add 1,800,000*l.* to their capital stock, which they did on terms highly advantageous to them. In thus increasing their own commerce, they were not unmindful of the interests of their servants, but permitted the captains and officers of their ships to employ the spare space for their advantage in private adventures.

WAR WITH TIPPPOO. The Rajah of Travancore having become involved in hostilities with Tippoo Saib, the presidency of Madras took up the quarrel of their ally, the Rajah; and treaties being made with the Nizam of the Deccan and the Poonah Mahrattas for their co-operation, and the Bombay presidency being called upon for the assistance of their forces, all those allies, under the immediate direction of Earl Cornwallis, the governor-general of India, marched in various directions against Tippoo. He resisted their attacks with great judgment and valour, but after defending himself almost two years, he was compelled to sign a treaty on the 17th day of March, 1792, whereby he ceded about one half of his dominions, to be divided among the Company, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas, became bound to pay all expences of the war, and delivered two of his sons into the hands of Lord

Cornwallis as hostages for the faithful performance of his stipulations. By this treaty the Company acquired an annual revenue of 240,000*l.*, and received 1,600,000*l.* in money.

EMBASSY TO CHINA. In 1792, Lord Macartney was dispatched on an embassy to China, from which great expectations were entertained, but from some unascertained cause, they were altogether frustrated.

FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS. In June, 1793, an act passed, whereby the management of the dividends upon the debt of 4,200,000*l.*, owing by the public to the Company, was transferred from the Company to the Bank, the capital being ingrafted in the three per cent. reduced annuities; and this ingraftment is declared to be a redemption of the debt, except that whatever part of the capital the Company may retain as their property in their corporate capacity, though under the management of the Bank, must, in the event of their privilege being terminated, be repaid to them at par.

NEW ACT FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA. In the same session, an act was passed which so effectually regulates the state, commerce, and conduct of the Company, the resident officers, and the British subjects in general with respect to India, that it is thought proper to give at length the extract from it, as presented by Mr. Macpherson.

By this statute, 33 Geo. III. c. 52., the Company's exclusive privilege of trade, and their territorial possessions, are continued till the 1st of March, 1814, to be then terminated on payment of all sums due to them, and giving three years' notice.—His Majesty may appoint commissioners for the affairs of India, to direct the administration of the revenues, and the civil and military government, for which purpose the Company's books and dispatches must be submitted to their inspection.—The expense of this board, and their officers, limited to 16,000*l.* a year, is to be defrayed by the Company.—The government of India is vested in a governor and three counsellors, in each of the presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, the two latter presidencies being subordinate to the former, the governor of which is governor-general of the whole British territories in India.—The governors and counsellors are to be appointed by the directors, and no person is eligible to the council till he has resided twelve years in India in the Company's service.—The directors may also appoint persons, provisionally, to succeed to any of the above offices, on the death or removal of the persons possessing them; and, in case of no such provisional appointment being made, the office shall devolve upon the person next in rank at the time of the vacancy, except the commander of the forces, who shall not succeed to the government, unless he
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be expressly appointed to the provisional succession.—His Majesty, by his sign-manual, countersigned by the president of the board of commissioners, may remove any of the Company's officers or servants in India.—‘ And forasmuch as to pursue ‘ schemes of conquest and extension of dominion, in India, are ‘ measures repugnant to the wish, the honour, and policy of ‘ this nation,’ the governor-general is not authorized to make war, without the express order of the court of directors, or of the secret committee and the board of commissioners, unless the Company or their allies are attacked, or preparations are made by an enemy for attacking them.—In order to give energy and dispatch to the measures of government, the governors are empowered to act without the concurrence, or against the opinion, of their council, but, in that case, taking the whole responsibility upon themselves.—The directors must not send out more writers, or cadets, than are necessary to supply the vacancies.—No person can be sent out to India, whose age is under fifteen, or above twenty-two years; but commissioned officers, who have been one year in actual service in the army, militia, or fencibles, not older than twenty-five years, may go out as cadets.—No British subject in His Majesty's, or the Company's service in India, is permitted to receive any present, either for himself or in the name of the Company; but lawyers, medical men, and chaplains, may lawfully receive their professional fees, as formerly.—In case of the Company's exclusive privilege being terminated, they may still carry on a free trade in their corporate capacity, in common with other British subjects.—In case of any territory being obtained from the Chinese government, and a settlement being established upon it by the Company, all His Majesty's subjects may lawfully export British and Irish manufactures to it in the Company's ships, at a moderate rate of freight, the goods being consigned to the Company's supercargoes, or free merchants licensed by the Company, who shall pay the proceeds into the Company's treasury, and receive bills payable in Great Britain.—Ships employed in the southern whale fishery, and in the trade to the north-west coast, may navigate the seas within the limits of the Company's privilege, under certain limitations, on giving sufficient security that they shall not infringe the Company's commercial privileges.—Any of His Majesty's subjects, residing in any part of his European dominions, may export to Bengal, Malabar, Coromandel, or Sumatra, in the Company's ships, any article of the produce or manufacture of the British European dominions, except military stores, ammunition, masts, spars, cordage, anchors, pitch, tar, and copper; and in like manner the Company's civil servants in India, and the

free merchants living in India under the Company's protection, may ship on their own account and risk, in the Company's ships, all kinds of India goods, except calicoes, dimities, muslins, and other piece goods, which they must not ship unless particularly licensed by the Company.—If the Company shall not have purchased fifteen hundred tons of British copper before the 31st day of August in each year, the proprietors of British copper may export, on their own account and risk, as much as the Company's export shall fall short of that quantity, in the Company's ships, on giving notice to their secretary.—If the Company, and the persons licensed by them, do not import a sufficient quantity of piece goods for the consumption of Great Britain, as far as such goods are permitted to be used for home consumption, and also of the piece goods intended for exportation, the board of commissioners may authorize individuals to import all, or any of the sorts, of the goods above mentioned, under such regulations as they shall think proper, and agreeable to the law prohibiting the consumption of certain species of goods in this kingdom.—‘For insuring to private merchants and manufacturers the certain and ample means of exporting their merchandize to the East Indies, and importing the returns for the same, and the other goods, wares and merchandize, allowed by this act, at reasonable rates of freight,’ the Company must, every year, appropriate at least three thousand tons of shipping for carrying goods, which may be lawfully exported or imported by individuals, which quantity of shipping may be augmented or diminished, as the commissioners shall think proper.—The owners of the goods shipped shall pay to the Company, in the time of peace, five pounds outwards, and fifteen pounds homeward per ton; and in time of war, the freight shall be raised, with approbation of the commissioners, in such proportion as the Company themselves pay for their freight.—The servants of the Company, except those engaged in juridical or military duties, and those prohibited by their covenants, may act as agents for the sale of goods lawfully shipped by individuals, and for providing the goods allowed to be imported by them in return; and the private merchants, licensed by the Company, have also permission to act as agents.—British subjects, in India, must not reside in any place more than ten miles distant from one of the principal settlements, unless specially licensed by the Company, or by the governor of a principal settlement.—The duty of five per cent., formerly paid to the Company on the goods imported in private trade, and the charge of two per cent. for landing and selling, are abrogated; and, instead of them, the Company are to charge three per cent. on the sale amount of all goods brought

brought from India, (but not from China,) as full compensation for the expences of hoyage, landing, cartage, storage, sorting, lotting, and selling, which, with the freight, constitutes the whole charge, payable to the Company, upon India goods so imported.—The goods imported from China, in private trade, are still liable to the former charges of five and two per cent. ; and the Company's engagements with their commanders, officers, and other servants, remain unaffected by this act.—In order to encourage individuals to engage in the trade of importing raw materials for manufactures from India, and to secure to manufacturers the means of furnishing themselves therewith, the Company are required to make speedy and frequent sales of raw silk, sugar, cotton, cotton yarn, wool, skins, dye-stuffs, drugs, and other articles of raw material, whether imported in private trade or on the Company's own account, in moderate lots, agreeable to regulations framed by the directors, and approved by the commissioners.—All goods imported in private trade shall be secured in the Company's warehouses, and sold by public auction, under the order of the court of directors, for account of the proprietors.

The net produce of the territorial revenues shall be applied in the following order of preference, and to no other purpose : —First, in supporting a sufficient military and marine force in India, maintaining the forts, and supplying military and naval stores.—Secondly, in paying the interest of the debt owing by the Company in India.—Thirdly, in defraying the expences of the civil and commercial establishments of the several settlements.—Fourthly, a sum, not under a crore of current rupees, shall be issued every year to the commercial boards, to be applied to the purchase of the Company's investments in India and China.—Fifthly, in case of any part of the India debt being discharged, or transferred to Great Britain, the sum allotted for the commercial investments may be proportionally enlarged.—Lastly, whatever surplus there may be, shall be applied to the reduction of the Company's debt in India, or to such other purposes as the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the commissioners, shall direct.—The governments in India may draw bills upon the Company, for the purpose of transferring the India debt to Great Britain, to the extent of 500,000*l.* in a year, payable either to the creditors, or to other persons advancing money for the purpose of paying off the India debt.

The Company's profits in Europe, after paying interest and charges, shall be applied as follows, and in the following order of preference, and to no other purpose : —First, in paying a dividend of ten per cent. upon the capital stock to the proprietors,

prietors, the first payment to be made at Midsummer, 1793. — Secondly, in setting apart 500,000*l.* annually for the payment of bills drawn for the purpose of transferring the India debt to Great Britain, till the debt in India shall be reduced to two millions. — Thirdly, in paying into the Exchequer a sum not exceeding 500,000*l.* annually, to be applied as Parliament shall direct, except as in this act is otherwise specially provided. — Fourthly, till the India debt shall be reduced to 2,000,000*l.* the ultimate surplus may be applied to the further reduction of it, or in payment of debts at home, excepting India bonds, to the amount of 1,500,000*l.*; or it may be invested in goods to be sent to India or China, the proceeds of which shall be applied to the reduction of the debt in India. — Lastly, when the India debt shall be reduced to 2,000,000*l.*, and the bond debt to 1,500,000*l.*, one-sixth part of the surplus, after the above mentioned payments are made, shall be applied to augment the dividends on the Company's capital stock; and the other five-sixths shall be paid into the Bank, in the name of the Commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, the account of which shall be kept under the title of *The Guarantee Fund of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to India*, till the sums so paid, with the growing interest upon them, shall amount to twelve millions; after which the surplus shall be paid into the Exchequer, as the property of the public in full right. But, if the India debt shall afterward rise above 2,000,000*l.*, or the bond debt rise above 1,500,000*l.*, the above-mentioned applications for the reduction of them shall again take place, and continue so long as those debts exceed the prescribed limits. — When the guarantee fund shall have accumulated to 12,000,000*l.* the dividends growing upon it shall be applied to make up the Company's dividend to ten per cent., if at any time their funds, appropriated to that purpose, shall prove insufficient. — In case of the Company's exclusive privilege being terminated, and their funds, after discharging every claim upon them, not being sufficient to allow 200*l.* to the proprietors for every 100*l.* of their capital stock, the guarantee fund shall be liable to make good whatever deficiency there may be; and whatever surplus there shall be, over making good such deficiency, shall belong to the public. If the payments to the Exchequer and the Bank shall at any time be found prejudicial to the affairs of the Company, they may be suspended, by order of the lords of the treasury. — If those payments shall be rendered impracticable, by the extraordinary expences incurred by war, or preparations for war, the arrears of them shall not be permitted to retard the accumulation of the guarantee fund, but shall be paid to the public on the determination

termination of the Company's exclusive privilege, if the funds shall be sufficient, after paying off all debts, to allow the proprietors 200*l.* for every 100*l.* of their capital stock; failing which, the claim of the public upon the Company for arrears shall drop. — This act shall not affect the right of the public, or of the Company, to the territorial possessions beyond the term now granted. — After the Company shall have paid 500,000*l.* to the public, in January, 1794, their separate fund may be applied in making an addition of one half per cent. to the annual dividend of ten per cent. — For the purpose of protecting the funds of the Company, during the term of their exclusive privilege, from being burthened with improper charges, they are restricted from granting any new salary or pension, or any augmentation of salary or pension, exceeding 200*l.* annually, without the approbation of the commissioners. — The directors are required to lay a state of their accounts, of every kind, before both Houses of Parliament in April every year. — There being many unsettled claims between the public and the Company, all such, which were prior to the 24th of December, 1792, are cancelled on both sides; and after that period, the expences of His Majesty's troops are at the charge of the Company.

All His Majesty's subjects residing in Great Britain, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, America, or the West Indies, are strictly prohibited from trading to, or being in India, unless licensed by the Company; and the ships and cargoes of such illicit traders, and also their persons, shall be seized by any of the Company's governors or agents, and the illicit traders shall be sent to England to answer for their offences. — Persons discharged from the Company's service or protection, and remaining in India after the proper time allowed for their departure, are to be treated as illicit traders. — All merchandize and bullion shipped for India, except the property of the Company, and of persons authorized by this act, and all goods taken out of any ship on her homeward-bound passage before her arrival in England, shall be forfeited, together with double the value; and the commander or officer, knowingly permitting such unlawful loading, for every such offence shall forfeit 1000*l.*, besides all the wages owing to him, and be rendered incapable of serving the Company ever after. — British subjects, as above described, trading to India under the authority of any foreign prince or state, shall forfeit 500*l.* for every such offence. — The governors, and the officers of the revenue and of justice, in India, are prohibited from having any concern in trade, except on the Company's account. — The judges of the Supreme Court shall not have any concern whatever in trade. —No

— No British subject shall be concerned in the inland trade in salt, betel nut, tobacco, or rice, except on account of the Company, or by their licence.— No person shall send East India goods to Europe, by the way of Suez in Egypt, or by any other channel of conveyance than what is directed by this act.

— But the servants of the Company, who are not prohibited from trading on their own account, and the free merchants, may sell goods in India to the subjects of any foreign state, and may act as agents for sale and returns to any foreign Company or foreign merchants.

Such were the chief of the multifarious provisions of the Charter Act.

CAPTURES FROM THE FRENCH. As soon as the commencement of the war was known in India, the French were deprived of their settlements at Chandernagore, Pondicherry, Karical, Yanam, and Mahé, and their factory at Surat, whereby their India trade was totally annihilated.

DUTIES ON TEA. The further progress of the national war little affected the interests of the Company on the continent of India. They persevered for the public good, although to their own loss, in encouraging the growth and importation of raw silk, and government progressively advanced the duty on tea from $12\frac{1}{2}$ to 96 per cent., deriving thus a double advantage from the commutation act, while the consumption of the article, far from decreasing, advanced to an average of twenty millions of pounds per annum. In the mean time, the increasing commerce of America with British India rendering the measure necessary, some regulations were adopted in 1799, favourable to the British trade in the duties on exports.

WAR WITH TIPPoo. Tippoo Sultan, hoping that the war between Great Britain and France would afford him a favourable opportunity of being revenged for his former losses and disasters, entered into engagements with Zemaun Shah, King of Cabul, in the beginning of 1796, and in 1797 sent ambassadors to the governor of the Isle of France. His object in both negotiations was to obtain a powerful co-operation from different quarters, in a war to be undertaken for the purpose of exterminating the English Company, and dividing their possessions among himself and his allies; or, in case of peace taking place in Europe, inducing the French government to insist on the restitution of the territory and treasure he was deprived of in the preceding war by the Company and their allies. His ambassadors obtained a very small military force from the Isle of France, but the reception of French officers and soldiers by Tippoo was deemed equivalent to a declaration of hostility, especially when with that conduct was combined the anxious
attention

attention he had bestowed upon the augmentation and improvement of his military force ever since the termination of the preceding war. Lord Mornington, the Governor-general, as soon as he was apprized of Tippoo's proceedings, strengthened the alliances with the Nizam of the Deccan and the Mahrattas, and ordered the Coromandel and Bombay armies to assemble in force. After some correspondence with Tippoo, who endeavoured to gain time, operations were commenced. Tippoo's armies were repeatedly defeated; and at last, on the fourth of May, 1799, Seringapatam, his capital, was taken by assault, and the Sultan was slain. His dominions were divided among the Company, the Nizam, the Mahrattas, and an infant representative of the old rajahs of Mysore, to whom the original territory of his ancestors was allotted. A liberal provision was also made for the children, relations, and dependents of the fallen prince. It was hoped that the downfall of this formidable and inveterate enemy would insure the safety and prosperity of the Company's possessions in the south part of India, but they were even by success brought in contact with the Mahrattas, a nation whose valour, or rather ferocity, forms a striking contrast to the mild and submissive temper of the other Hindoos, whose chief employment is warfare, whose warfare is plunder and desolation, and whom the great Moguls, when in the zenith of their power, were never able to subdue.

TROOPS SENT TO EGYPT. It was supposed that the French expedition to Egypt, headed by Bonaparte, was formed in furtherance of the views of Tippoo to destroy the British commerce and ascendancy, and accordingly the Company joined their endeavours with those of the country at large for the expulsion of the enemy, by sending a large body of sepoys to the scene of action.

SHIP BUILDING IN INDIA. Before the Company became possessed of territory in India, the people residing there in their service were few, their sole employment being the administration of commercial affairs; and the few moderate fortunes, acquired by the industry of many years, were remitted in bills drawn upon the Company. Immediately after the acquisition of the territorial revenue, many new departments of office became necessary, and the number of the Company's servants was consequently much augmented. At that time, many of them became suddenly possessed of prodigious wealth; and, the Company's bills not being sufficient for the remittance of the whole of it, a great deal was brought to Europe by foreign vessels. Hence originated a clandestine connection with the foreign companies, which was considered injurious to that of England. It was the professed intention of the act of 1793 to
remedy

remedy this abuse by opening a legitimate channel of conveyance for the property acquired by British subjects in India, so that the whole trade, truly founded upon British capital, might be brought to London, and also to open to the manufacturers of Great Britain an extended vent for their goods in India, where it was alleged much larger quantities might be consumed than are carried out by the Company. These purposes it was conceived might be accomplished by allowing individuals in India to send Indian commodities to London, and British manufacturers to send their fabrics to India in the Company's ships, by which the manufacturers might also import the produce and manufactures of India in return. As a necessary part of this plan, it was enacted, that the Company's civil servants in India, and also the free merchants there, should be authorized to act as agents in this branch of trade. Thus was the Company's monopoly laid open by law, to a certain extent, in favour of the British residents in India, and the British manufacturers at home.

The manufacturers scarcely ever sought to avail themselves of their newly acquired privilege of becoming East India merchants; but the merchants residing in India, as soon as they understood that a legalized extension of their trade was in the contemplation of the legislature, and without waiting to know the regulations, built a considerable number of ships, which they proposed to employ in the trade between India and England, though Lord Cornwallis, then Governor-general, and Sir John Shore, his successor, both informed them that there could not be employment for their ships in the way that they expected. In 1795, when seven of the largest of the Company's ships were taken into His Majesty's service, and the Company at the same time ordered large quantities of rice to be brought from India to afford relief to this country, when distressed by a scarcity of corn, twenty-seven of those India built ships were taken into the Company's service, at the rate of 16*l.* per ton for rice and heavy and 20*l.* for fine goods. All these vessels carried goods to London for account of the private merchants settled in India, and also carried British goods to India for them. The owners of the India built ships now thought that they had reason to believe them regularly established in the trade; but as the emergency which called them into employment no longer existed, it was impossible to allow them to supersede the ships built and equipped in a superior manner expressly for the service of the Company, which they were under engagements to employ for a stipulated number of voyages. The merchants, disappointed of getting their ships into the trade, made grievous complaints of the heavy freight and many hardships put upon them

them by the Company's regulations. They did not allege that any of the grievances they complained of were infractions of the act of 1793; nor could it be denied, that many deviations from the provisions of that act had been made in their favour; but they now changed their ground, and advanced new claims which had not been thought of, or at least not brought forward when that act was under the consideration of parliament. It is beyond the scope of this work to detail all the allegations and arguments which were made use of on both sides of this very important question. Great names may be cited as favouring each side, but the purposes of the innovation succeeded to a considerable degree.

ACQUISITION OF THE CARNATIC. The connexion of the Madras government with the Nabob of the Carnatic, which began in 1751, was kept up with him and his successors, by the Company's forces protecting them against their enemies, and particularly against the reiterated attempts of Hyder Ally and his son Tippoo. As a fixed compensation for the expence thus incurred by the Company, the Nabob Wallajah, in 1787, bound himself and his successors to pay fifteen lacks of star pagodas (eight shillings sterling each) annually into the treasury at Madras; but, as many individuals also had claims upon the Nabob for money lent to him, or for other considerations, and he found himself unable to discharge all demands, Earl Cornwallis, in July, 1792, entered into a new treaty with him, by which the Company became bound to keep up constantly a sufficient force for the protection of the Carnatic, and accepted the Nabob's obligation to pay only nine lacks of pagodas annually, instead of fifteen; and also the further sum of 625,105 pagodas for the purpose of discharging his debts, to be paid annually till the whole should be completely liquidated. In virtue of this agreement, the Company's government took upon them, not only to make the payments to his private creditors, but also to weigh the validity and adjust the amount of their claims, many of which were of a disputable nature. For these purposes the Nabob put the Company in possession of a large tract of his country, the revenue of which they were to collect and employ according to the treaty, which was guaranteed by the British parliament. In 1801, the Nabob Azeem-ul-Dowlah, the grandson of Wallajah, made over to the Company the entire possession and government of the Carnatic, reserving to himself the title and dignity of Nabob, and one-fifth part of the net revenue for the support of himself and his family, besides jag-hires (or pensions) allotted to his kindred and others, and several payments to charitable establishments, the Company undertaking to support a sufficient military force for the protection
of

of the country, and for the honorary guard of his person and palace. In consequence of these stipulations, the Company now stand in the place of the Nabob with respect to such of the private debts as still remain unsettled, amounting, as stated by the claimants, to 5,600,000*l.* sterling, most of which are said to be of about forty years' standing. In order to bring these matters to a final settlement, the Company, with concurrence of the claimants, in July, 1805, appointed three gentlemen to be commissioners for investigating the claims, and ascertaining the sum due to each person.

DEATH OF SHAH AULUM. On the 19th of November, 1805, this sovereign, nominally one of the greatest, but in reality perhaps the most degraded and abject in the world, died at Delhi. In 1788, he had been made prisoner by Gholam Khandur, the commander of his own little army, who put out his eyes, plundered his treasures, and insulted the females of his family. This wicked servant was put to death by Scindia, one of the chiefs of the Mahrattas, who immediately took possession of the territory allotted for the support of the unfortunate monarch, and thenceforth kept him in the most miserable indigence. He was afterward in the custody of General Perron, a Frenchman, who held an independent sovereignty in his own hands, but who did not improve the condition of the unfortunate Mogul. In September, 1803, he fell into the power of the English, and an honourable support was allotted to him, which continued during his life, and is still enjoyed by his family.

MAHRATTA WAR. In 1802, the Company's governments in India were drawn into a war against some of the Mahratta princes; by the victorious termination of which, in 1805, a very considerable addition was made to their territories.

TRADE OPENED. It is impossible to contemplate without astonishment the progress of the government in India, originating in a mere toleration for trading purposes, and growing in so short a space of time to an absolute dominion over an extensive tract of country, peopled with more than forty millions of native inhabitants. The question of an open trade with this vast dominion had long engaged a great portion of attention both in the legislature and in the public, when, on the renewal of the Company's charter, four acts were passed of the highest importance to the Company and the public.

By the first of these, 53 Geo. III. c. 155. the territorial possessions in India, with the late acquisitions on the continent of Asia, or in any island north of the equator, are to remain in the government of the East India Company for twenty years, from the 10th of April, 1814. The Company have also the exclusive monopoly of the trade to and from China, for the like term

term of years. Private traders, subjects of His Majesty, in the united kingdom, may export goods to any port or place within the limits of the Company's charter, provided the return cargoes are sent to such ports only in Great Britain and Ireland as shall be specified by an order of His Majesty in council in Great Britain, and by the Lord Lieutenant and council in Ireland.

Ships in the private trade shall not proceed to any place within the limits of the Company's charter on the continent of Asia, from the river Indus to the town of Malacca, or to any of their islands lying to the north of the equator, or to their factory of Bencoolen, without a licence from the Court of Directors; nor, unless specially authorised, to any places except one of their principal settlements of Fort William, Fort St. George, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's Island. Special licences to be granted by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Controul. No ships to proceed further to the northward than 11 degrees south latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees east longitude from London (except the ports and places already mentioned) without a licence from the Board of Controul. No ship or vessel, whose registered measurement is not less than 350 tons, except packets.

Persons desirous of going to and remaining in India, may, on application, obtain a certificate for that purpose from the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Controul; and, so long as they shall conduct themselves properly, shall be entitled to the countenance and protection of the several governments within the limits of the Company's charter. All persons, on their arrival, shall be subject to the regulations of the Company's local governments. If any such person shall so conduct himself as in the judgment of the governments in India respectively, to have forfeited his claim to their countenance and protection, his certificate of residence may, by their order, be declared void; and such person shall be deemed and taken to be a person residing there without licence or authority. No person whose certificate shall have been void, as above mentioned, shall be liable to any prosecution for residing in India without a licence, until two months after notice of such order, by publication in the Presidency Gazette, or by a copy of such order left with the said person. No British subject shall reside within the limits of the Company's charter, from the 10th of April, 1814, unless authorised by law, or by a licence or certificate from the Court of Directors. The governor-general, or governor of any of the presidencies, may, by special licence, authorise the residence of any British subject within the said limits until the pleasure of the

Court of Directors shall be known. The Board of Controul may, by licence in writing, authorise any person to proceed to and reside at any place more to the northward than 11 degrees of south latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees of east longitude from London, and not being upon the continent of Asia, between the river Indus and the town of Malacca inclusive, nor in any island under the Company's government lying north of the equator, nor at the Company's factory at Bencoolen nor at China.

British subjects may proceed to and reside at any place situate more to the southward than eleven degrees of south latitude, or more to the westward than sixty-four degrees, or more to the eastward than 150 degrees of east longitude from London, for any lawful purposes, without a licence.

If any British subjects, other than such as shall be licenced by the Company, shall, during the further term hereby granted, sail or trade within the limits of the Company's charter, such persons shall be deemed to have unlawfully traded there, and, together with all others concerned, the ships, goods, treasure, &c. found on board, shall be subject to the like penalties, forfeitures, and methods of suit, as are contained in the acts of the 33d of the King, or in any act in force for securing the rights of the Company, and restraining clandestine and illicit trade.

Upon information of such an offence being exhibited by the advocate-general, or other principal law officer of the Company, in any of the supreme courts at any of the presidencies, the offender shall, on proof thereof, pay a fine not exceeding 2000 rupees; in case of a second offence, a fine not exceeding 4000 rupees; and in each case be imprisoned until the fine be paid. Such subject offending after conviction, may be prosecuted for a misdemeanor, or sent to any part of the United Kingdom.

By the 54th Geo. III. c. 34. British subjects may trade to any intermediate port or place between the United Kingdom and the limits of the charter of the East India Company, situate in North and South America, (except any British colony in America), and to the Island of Madeira, the Canaries, and Cape de Verds Islands, the Island of Saint Helena, and the Cape of Good Hope, and take on board any goods which can be legally carried from any of such intermediate ports or places. British subjects may also carry on trade in ships navigated according to law, directly or circuitously, between all ports and places within the limits of the Company's charter, except the dominions of the Emperor of China.

Two other statutes confirm the right of ships not built in Great Britain to enter into trade, and fix the duties on goods imported, and modes of paying them. The statutes contain many other highly important regulations.

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GOVERNMENT AND ESTABLISHMENTS AT HOME.

In the preceding pages, the origin and progress of the government of India have been narrated at so much length, that no very detailed description of the government and establishments at home will be required.

BOARD OF CONTROUL. The constitution of this board has already been mentioned. It is composed of a president and eleven other members; and has a secretary, an assistant, an accountant, with proper clerks and other officers. Its establishment is at Whitehall.

DIRECTORS. The directors are twenty-four in number, of whom six retire every year, but are re-eligible in the year following. They are under the presidency of a chairman and deputy chairman, each appointed for a year. The directors are formed into committees under the following heads:—Accounts, buying and warehouses, civil college, correspondence, government troops and stores, house, law-suits, library, military fund, military seminary, private trade, shipping, stud, and treasury. Of these committees different directors are members, but the chairman and his deputy are members of them all. Their duties are sufficiently denoted by their appellations.

EAST INDIA HOUSE. The ancient hall of the East India Company, being too small for the transaction of their extensive business, a house was erected about 1725 in Leadenhall-street, which they hold in fee-simple. About the year 1788, it became again necessary to enlarge this building: measures were taken for acquiring the property in the adjacent houses and land, and particularly in Lime-street. The buildings were chiefly of lath and plaster, and occupied in various ways by different tenants. When the Company had determined to extend their house eastward, it became necessary to obtain an act for that purpose; and after several years labour, arose a most magnificent edifice. The centre has a portico, with six Ionic pillars fluted. The frieze is sculptured with various antique ornaments; and the tympanum of the pediment contains a crowd of emblematic figures, relating to their commerce, protected by His Majesty, who is represented in alto relievo, extending over them a shield, held in his right hand. On the point of the pediment, a statue of Britannia. On the east corner, a figure of Asia on a dromedary; and at the west, one of Europe. Those are all very excellent. The basement is truly proportioned, and the windows are arched; but those above are not. The principal entrance under the portico has a handsome

pediment over it, and two windows on each side. From the hall a long passage extends southward, on the left side of which are several apartments, occupied by clerks: it is terminated by a court, whose sides are offices of various designations. In it are two brass guns, brought from the arsenal of 'Tippoo, remarkable for their length, and the tigers' heads on them; the muzzles exhibit the extended jaws of that ferocious animal, extremely well executed. On the right hand of the entry is the court-room, a most superb apartment. The chimney-piece on the east wall is of fine marble, and almost covers that side. Two caryatides of statuary, on pedestals of veined marble, richly ornamented, support the cornice, which, with the brackets and other sculptures, are white. Directly over the fire-place is a tablet of white marble, and on it the following design in bas-relief. Britannia sitting on a globe under a rock on the sea-shore, looking eastward; her right arm leaning on a shield, with the Union Cross, holding a trident in her left hand: her head adorned with a rostral crown: emblems of sovereignty and victory at sea. Behind Britannia, two boys; one leaning on a cornucopia, looking up to her; and the other playing with the riches flowing from it: emblems of the advantages that accrue from trade and navigation to posterity. Before Britannia are three female figures, representing India, Asia, and Africa. Near the shore an old river god, representing the Thames, leaning on his urn. The Company's arms are placed over the whole, with stuccoed ornaments on each side. The doors, decorations, mirrors, and pictures, are equally beautiful and well adapted.

The south-east door opens into a small committee-room. The great north door opens to the old sale-room, the west end of which is circular; and over the chair a sky light. A considerable flight of steps ascends eastward, for the accommodation of bidders. On the platform at the top, is a doric colonade; the intercolumniations guarded by balustrades. This room receives additional light from several windows on the north side. The room for the committee of correspondence is large, and splendidly fitted up. A new sale-room has been erected at the east end of the building, which is lighted from the ceiling.

The Company's architects were Messrs. Jupp and Holland. The upper part of the building contains nothing to describe. One vast chamber is a repository of their books, which amount to an astonishing number, and are ranged in presses projecting into the midst of the room.

WAREHOUSES. The warehouses extend from New-street, south-east, almost to Houndsditch. When they were begun, a stone was placed in the corner house of the above and Bishopsgate-streets, inscribed, "This wall, 93 feet in length from east

east to west, and from the face of this stone eighteen inches in substance, is the property of the East India Company. Erected at the sole charge of the Company, May 26, 1776. At the same time the ground eighteen feet south from this stone, which had been purchased by the East India Company, was given to the public, for widening the entrance into this street." These warehouses have grand fronts of several hundred feet in length. The western side next Bishopsgate-street, consists of a body and two wings. The basement at each end is rustic; and there are no windows in the building, except in this part. A neat cornice and coping finish the top; and the wings are ornamented with blank doric windows and pediments. The arch of entrance is in the south wing, whence they extend up the south side of New-street. The body of this part retires from the street, and the wings are connected by a strong wall, with rustic gates. The great height of the buildings, the number of stories, multitudes of windows, and curious cranes for hoisting the goods, all create surprise and wonder. Two handsome houses terminate the warehouses near Houndsditch, in which the officers that govern them reside. Between them is a fine gateway. Several wretched streets, and some hundreds of habitations, were removed to carry on those works. The space of pure air thus obtained must be of essential service in such a neighbourhood.

OFFICERS. It would be tedious and uninteresting to attempt a list of the officers employed to carry on this great concern. Among the principal are the secretary, with his deputy, the examiner of Indian correspondence, the treasurer, the accountant-general, the accountants in the different departments, and the clerks to the several committees; there are various other officers, and many clerks employed under them. The best notion of the large number of persons engaged in all the departments of the India House, including the labourers, may be derived from the fact, that during the late wars, they formed three entire regiments of infantry, and His Majesty was so satisfied with their quality and appearance, that he graciously allowed them to use six pieces of artillery.

Docks. The ships employed by the East India Company being larger than those in any other trade, they were obliged to lie many miles below that part of the river which is properly the harbour of London; and their cargoes being of great value and national importance, the depredations to which they were exposed, were felt as a serious evil by the Company and the owners of the ships, and also by the government, in the defalcation of the revenue, which the embezzled goods ought to have paid. The use of sufficient wet docks, in which the ships may be loaded and unloaded, being judged the only remedy for

the evil, a number of gentlemen were incorporated as a joint stock company, with a capital of 200,000*l.*, and with power to enlarge it as far as 300,000*l.* if necessary, for the purpose of constructing wet docks inclosed by proper walls and ditches, and communicating with the river Thames, to be appropriated solely to the ships in the India trade. The business of this company is conducted by thirteen Directors, of whom four must be Directors of the East India Company. Their profits are restricted to ten per cent.; and they must not engage in building or repairing ships, nor be any way concerned in shipping. They are entitled to receive a duty of fourteen shillings for every ton of the registered measurement of each British-built ship, and twelve shillings per ton for India-built vessels navigated by Lascars. The hatches of every ship arriving from India or China must be locked down before her arrival at Gravesend; and the captain, or one of the two officers next to him in command, must remain on board till she is moored in the docks, and the keys delivered to an officer of the East India Company. The Company are required to provide covered waggons or caravans, securely locked, for conveying their goods from the docks to their warehouses. These regulations, with many others of inferior general importance, were enacted by parliament in the years 1803 and 1806. [Acts 43 Geo. III., c. 126; 46 Geo. III. c. 113.] The docks have been completed according to the proposed plan, and are found beneficial to all concerned with them. Of this undertaking some further notice occurs in vol. iii. p. 472.

HERTFORD COLLEGE. From the days of Lord Clive until very lately, the want of proper instruction to young men sent out to India, in the civil and military departments, was the frequent subject of remonstrance and complaint. The Company, with their usual zeal, spirit and munificence, undertook to remedy the evil; and for that purpose have founded and completed, near the town of Hertford, a most magnificent establishment for the education of persons intended for civil employ; and the legislature has declared, by the statute 55 Geo. III. already so much cited, that the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Controul, may make rules and regulations for the good government of the college. The Lord Bishop of London is empowered to exercise visitatorial power and jurisdiction.

ADMISSION. In the first place, as the introduction to this college is with a view to the civil service, it is necessary to note, that by a resolution of the Court of Directors of the 9th of August, 1809, any person who shall be nominated to a situation, either civil or military, and shall have obtained such nomination

mination in consequence of purchase, or agreement to purchase, or of any corrupt practice whatever, either direct or indirect, by himself or by any other person, with or without his privity, shall be rejected from the service of the Company, and ordered back to England, if he shall have proceeded to India before a discovery of such corrupt practice be made: and if such situation shall have been so corruptly procured by himself, or with his privity, he shall be rendered incapable of holding that or any other situation whatever in the said service. Provided always, that if a fair disclosure of any corrupt transaction or practice, of the nature before described, wherein any Director has been concerned, shall be voluntarily made by the party or parties engaged in the same with such Director, the appointment thereby procured shall be confirmed by the Court.

No candidate can be nominated until he has completed the sixteenth year of his age: and no person who has been in the army or navy, or has been expelled from any place of education, will be nominated to the college. The nomination must be by a Director, to whom the parents or guardians of the candidate must address a letter, in a prescribed form; and as by the act 33 Geo. III. no person can be appointed a writer whose age exceeds twenty-two years, and by the act of the 53d Geo. III. all students for the college must remain there four terms, consequently, no person whose age exceeds twenty can be nominated as a student. Certificates are required of the time and place of birth, which must be verified by affidavits. The candidates are also to produce certificates from the persons under whom they have received their education, stating the nature of that education, and the proficiency they have made; and also certifying as to their mental ability, disposition and character. They are interrogated in an open committee of college as to their character, connexions, and qualifications. They are examined in the classics and arithmetic; and if they are not found to possess a competent knowledge of at least two of the Latin classics, the easier parts of the Greek testament, and the principles of grammar, as well as the common rules of arithmetic, together with vulgar and decimal fractions, are remanded until the commencement of the next term. Misconduct of students at college is attended with expulsion; and those who do not pass with credit the final examination, cannot be admitted into the civil service. No person expelled can be admitted into any line of the Company's service.

There are two terms in a year: the one extending from the 19th of January to the 31st of May; the other from the 27th July to the 21st of December. One hundred guineas per annum are paid for each student, one moiety at the beginning

of each term, besides books and stationery, and ten guineas on leaving, for the use of the philosophical apparatus and library.

By the 55th of the King, the Court of Directors shall not appoint any person in the capacity of a writer, unless he shall have been duly entered at the college, and shall have resided there four terms. No order for the appointment of any officer or principal of the said college, or head master of the military seminary, can be valid, until approved by the Board of Controul; and every spiritual person holding the situation of principal or professor in the said college is exempted from residence on any benefice of which he may be possessed.

The college is under the direction of a principal, professors in mathematics and natural philosophy, classical and general literature, history and political economy, general polity and the laws of England, Hindû literature and history of Asia, Arabic, Persian, and Hindûstanni literature, with writing-masters for the different languages, and other proper instructors.

On a student's appointment to be a writer, a legal instrument is to be entered into by some one person (to be approved by the Court of Directors), binding himself to pay the sum of 3000*l.* as liquidated damages to the Company, for breach of a covenant to be entered into, that the student's nomination has not been in any way bought, or sold, or exchanged for any thing convertible into a pecuniary benefit.

COLLEGE SCHOOL. Beside this college, the Company patronise a school subordinate to it, and under the superintendence of the principal, into which boys may be admitted at an early age, and in which they are taught the elements of general learning, and such other accomplishments as are the usual objects of instruction in the larger seminaries of this country. Especial attention is paid also to such parts of education as may serve to qualify them for public business, and for the higher departments of commercial life. Although this school is designed as introductory to the college, it is not to be understood that the Company is pledged to make it the sole medium of an appointment to the college itself; but yet the advantages of uniform and consistent instruction are too obvious to be pointed out. To the head master of this school, the annual sum of seventy guineas is paid for each pupil above the age of ten years, and fifty guineas for each under that age; which sums, without any additional charge, include instructions in the Greek, Latin, and modern languages, writing, arithmetic, mathematics, drawing, and dancing. A few pupils of a more advanced age are received at one hundred guineas, to whom some superior accommodations are granted. Pupils are also qualified

qualified in this school to pass their examinations for admission into the Company's military seminary.

MILITARY SEMINARY. This establishment was formed in pursuance of a resolution of the Court of Directors of the 24th of November 1815, and is placed at Addiscombe in Surry. There are two regular admissions annually, in the months of January and July, and the cadets are not received at an earlier age than fourteen, nor at a later period than the next admission after they have attained the age of sixteen years. They are required to remain at the seminary four terms, or two years, from the date of their actually joining the institution; excepting where students may be found, on public examination, qualified for the scientific branches of the profession in less than four terms; and in that case, such students are allowed, on proper certificates, to proceed to India. Each cadet must bring with him certain necessaries. At the annual public examination, at which it is provided that not less than five members of the seminary committee shall always be present, it is left to the public examiner to recommend to the committee the selection of the numbers required for the engineers and artillery, according to their degree of talent, acquirements, and good conduct; care being taken to apprise him, in the first instance, of the numbers actually wanted for those corps; and the remaining cadets to be sent to the infantry line of service. The cadets drafted as above for the infantry, take rank of all other cadets of the same season, nominated to those corps; excepting those who may have held His Majesty's commission for twelve months. Every cadet appointed to the seminary under this system is required to pay the sum of thirty pounds into the Company's treasury, previous to his admission, and the further sum of thirty pounds at the expiration of a year, toward defraying the Company's annual expence incurred for his board, lodging, and education. Every cadet, previous to his admission into the seminary, is required to provide two sureties for the due payment of these sums, and for the reimbursement of all expences above that amount, in the event of his not proceeding to India from any of the causes mentioned in the said bond.

In consideration of the thirty pounds per annum, each cadet is allowed, during his continuance at the seminary, two shillings and sixpence per week for pocket money, supplied with necessary clothing, books, stationery, drawing and mathematical instruments; and the seminary is furnished with philosophical instruments, and the requisite apparatus and materials to pursue the courses of chemical lectures. The woollen clothes are of superfine cloth. The cadets also have linen, when necessary in the opinion of the head master.

They

They have a public examiner of considerable rank in the artillery, professors in mathematics, classics, fortification and artillery, and oriental languages, with proper instructors in French, drawing, military exercises, and other useful branches of knowledge.

DEBT AND FINANCE. To treat on these subjects in detail would occupy a great space, and require calculations and investigations both extensive and minute. Pursuing a report of the House of Commons on this subject in 1811, Mr. Colquhoun, in his excellent treatise on the wealth, power, and resources of the British Empire, has given a copious detail; the result is, that the annual balance in favour of the Company, might, in those disadvantageous times, be estimated at 385,457*l.* after payment of the interest on their debt, and all the charges of their establishments at home and abroad, the expenditure, amounting to 19,394,979*l.* : or, in another view, that the Company's debts were,

	In India.	In England.	Total.
Bearing interest	27,414,697	7,365,900	
Without interest	4,813,165	6,520,531	

£ 32,227,862 13,886,431 46,114,293

Their assets were, in quick stock, comprising cash, bills receivable, goods, salt, opium, rum, grain, cattle, bonds and debts of every description, &c. ; and dead stock, including buildings, fortifications, plate, household furniture, plantations, farms, vessels, stores, &c. : which were stated as follows :

	In India.	In England.	Total.
Quick - -	25,821,587	11,164,955	36,986,542
Dead - -	10,870,132	1,208,020	12,078,152

£ 36,691,719 12,372,975 49,064,694

leaving a balance in favour of the Company of 2,950,401*l.*

On a presumption, therefore, says the same author, that the floating available property of the Company, amounting as above to 36,986,542*l.*, could be turned into money, and applied with convenience to the payment of the debt above mentioned of 46,114,293*l.*, the debt due would be reduced, as it may be virtually said to be reduced, to 9,127,751*l.*; against which may be placed, not only the dead or unproductive property, which cost in all 12,078,152*l.*, but also the annual amount of the territorial and other revenues and profits on trade, making in the whole an aggregate of 19,780,436*l.* Out of which it may be reasonably expected that a considerable surplus will arise, now that warlike expeditions against European enemies are at an

end, and the power of the native princes, who have hitherto been hostilely disposed, is either totally annihilated, or so much reduced as to hold out the prospect of a long period of peace in British India; thereby affording an opportunity, not only of reducing the immense military establishment, but also of abolishing much of the enormous expence which attaches to the civil institutions. In so far as these expences can be diminished, in the same proportion will the surplus revenue be augmented. And in the operation of this more economical system, a larger proportion of the annual profits of the labour of the people of India must center in the parent state than can be expected from the fortunes of individuals in the Company's service, inasmuch as a considerable part of the incomes of these individuals must be expended in India. A series of years of uninterrupted peace will afford time to correct abuses, and to introduce economy and regularity into every part of this system; the result of which must be, not only a considerable increase of revenue, but also a great diminution of the present unexampled expence, both at home and abroad.

BRITISH INDIA IN GENERAL. Having thus copiously abridged the history and general regulations of the British possessions in India, it remains, in the first place, to offer a view of their situation, establishments, and government.

The great Empire which England has established in the east, Colonel Malcolm observes, will be the theme of wonder to succeeding ages. That a small island in the Atlantic should have conquered and held the vast continent of India as a subject province, is, in itself, a fact, which can never be stated without exciting astonishment. But the surprise will be increased, when it is added, that this great conquest was made, not by the collective force of the nation, but by a company of merchants, who, originally vested with a charter of exclusive commerce, and with the privilege and right to protect their property, and to retaliate attack, were in a few years hurried, by the enterprise and ambition of their agents, the hostile and rival spirit of the other nations of Europe, and the weakness and perfidy of the princes of Asia, to whom they became, from their encroachments or their riches, an object of jealousy or plunder, into the possession of royal power, and actually found themselves called upon to act in the character of sovereigns over extended kingdoms, before they had ceased to be the mercantile directors of petty factories. The situation of a dependent state, says the same author, with a population of fifty millions, at the distance of ten thousand miles from the principal state, and surrounded by governments without faith, or even long-sighted prudence, is unparalleled in the history of
the

the world. Such however is the British empire in India. From beyond the mouth of the Ganges to Cape Comorin, and from that southern extremity in the mouth of the Indus, the Company have the command of that immense extent of coast, except the trifling settlement of the Portuguese and the Poona Mahrattas, who are bound by treaty to admit no ship into their ports that does not carry English colours.

HINDOSTAN IN GENERAL. The portion of Asia which is called Hindostan, extends from Cape Comari, called by navigators Comorin, in the south, to the mountains which form the northern boundary of Cashmir; that is, according to the most recent maps, from about the eighth to about the thirty-fifth degree of northern latitude, being twenty-seven degrees, or 1620 geographical miles, nearly equal to 1890 British. The boundaries are marked on the north by the mountains above mentioned. On the west, toward Persia, other ranges and deserts constitute the frontier, till the southern separation ends in the river of Araba. The other boundaries are supplied by the Indian ocean and the bay of Bengal, where the eastern extremity is limited by the little river Naaf, and those mountains which divide the British possessions from Aracan, Cassay, and Cashar. The northern boundary generally consists of the southern ridges of the Tibetan Alps. On the north-east of Bengal, a similar ridge divides Hindostan from the small territory of Assam, which seems an independent state, never having formed a portion of Hindostan, of dubious connexion with Tibet, and as yet unsubdued by the Birmans.

In this country, the British, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam, may be regarded as the three leading powers; to which may be added on the west, or on the Sindetic division, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the eastern division of Persia.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS. The British possessions in 1802 were, 1. Bengal and Bahar, with the Zemindary of Benares. 2. Northern Circars, including Guntoor. 3. Barra Mahal, and Dindigul. 4. Jaghire in the Carnatic. 5. The Calicut, Palicaud, and Coorga countries. The termination of the war with the Mahrattas in 1805, afforded a considerable addition to these territories, besides consolidating the British power, and effectually precluding all fear of combinations among the natives; while, on the other hand, every thing was done which a liberal policy could suggest, to prevent those who had been vanquished from repining at their condition. Thus has the British nation acquired the vast extent of dominion already alluded to, while the natives, since the peace in 1805, have enjoyed more happiness

pinests and freedom than they ever knew since the days of their Emperor Aurengzebe.

The following table is supposed to contain a correct view of the extent and population of the British provinces and dependencies :

	Geographical Square Miles.	Population.
Bengal, Bahar, and Benares	- 162,000	29,000,000
Acquisitions in Hindostan Proper and Orissa since 1799	- 60,000	10,000,000
Under the Bengal Presidency	222,000	39,000,000
Under the Jurisdiction of the Ma- dras Presidency	- 125,000	12,000,000
Do. Bombay Presidency	- 10,000	2,500,000
Total of British Hindostan	357,000	53,500,000
British Allies and Tributaries :		
The Nizam	- 76,000	8,000,000
The Peshwa and Guicowar	- 53,000	5,000,000
Nabob of Oude	- 13,000	2,000,000
Myfore Rajah	- 22,000	2,000,000
Travancor and Cochin Rajahs	- 5,000	500,000
Total under British jurisdic- tion and influence	- } 526,000	71,000,000

RIVERS.—Hindostan is watered by many noble rivers : those which are principally useful to the British part, are the Ganges, the Burampooter, and the Jumna, with their tributary streams.

The Ganges.—The Ganges must still be considered as the sacred sovereign of the Hindoo rivers, an attribute not infringed by the recent discovery of the Burampooter. In the Hindoo mythology, indeed, this stream makes a most conspicuous figure, and is the subject of many extravagant fables. The source of this river has never been correctly ascertained. Until 1807, all the maps represented it flowing within the Himalaya chain of snowy mountains many hundred miles, from an imaginary lake, named Mapana, to Gangoutri. In 1808 an expedition was sent by the Bengal Government expressly to survey the sources of the Ganges. From the information thus obtained, no doubt remained but that the source of the river is more remote than the place called Gangoutri, which is merely the point whence it issues from Himalaya, not,

as

as related, through a secret passage or cavern resembling a cow's mouth; but its current is perceptible beyond that place, although the access is so obstructed as to exclude further search. After issuing from the mountains near Hurdwar, to the conflux with the Jumna at Allahabad, the first large river that joins it, the bed of the Ganges is generally from a mile to a mile and a quarter wide. From hence its course becomes more winding, and its bed wider, until having successively received the *Goggrah*, the *Soane*, and the *Gunduck*, beside many smaller streams, its channel attains its full width, as it afterward in some parts becomes so narrow as half a mile; and, where no islands intervene, is in some places three miles wide. When at its lowest, the principal channel varies from 400 yards to a mile and a quarter in width, but is commonly about three-fourths of a mile. The Ganges is fordable at some places above its conflux with the Jumna, but the navigation is never interrupted. At 500 miles from the sea the channel is thirty feet deep when the river is at the lowest; which depth continues to the sea, where the sudden expansion of the stream deprives it of the force necessary to sweep away the bars of sand and mud thrown across it by the strong southerly winds; so that the principal branch of the Ganges cannot be entered by large vessels. In the course through the plains, the Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none smaller than the Thames, besides a great many others of lesser note. The largest tributary streams to the Ganges, in Bengal and Bahar, are the *Goggrah*, the *Soane*, and the *Coosy*, or *Cosa*.

The Goggrah.—This river has its source in the mountains to the north of Hindostan, but the exact situation has never been ascertained. It falls into the Sareyn (Sarjew) at Swargadwara; the united streams afterward being named indifferently the *Goggrah*, *Sarjew*, or *Deva* river. It flows through the district of Kemaon and province of Oude, and joins the Ganges in the province of Bahar.

The Soane. The rivers *Soane* and *Nerbudda* have their sources in the table land of Omercuntuc, in the province of Gundwana. The *Soane* rises on the east side, and flows through Pindarah, where, being joined by numerous other streams from the north-east side of this mountainous territory, it proceeds in a northerly direction through Sohagepoor and Bogalecund, whence turning to the eastward, it flows on to the Ganges, in the province of Bahar, after having performed a winding course of about 500 miles. Near its origin, this river is said to be called by the natives the *Sonabudda*, to distinguish it from

from the Nerbudda, by which, conjointly with the Ganges, the southern part of Hindostan is insulated.

The Coofy or Cosa. This river has its source in the Himalaya mountains, to the north of Nepaul, from whence it pursues a S. S. E. direction, and after a winding course of about 400 miles, joins the Ganges in the Bengal district of Purneah. Formerly this junction took place opposite to Rajemal, but it is now forty-five miles higher up.

The Burampooter or Brahmapootra. This is the largest river of India. Its sources have never been explored; but it is probable they are separated from those of the Ganges only by a narrow range of snow-clad peaks, about the thirty-second degree of north latitude, and eighty-second of east longitude. From hence the Brahmapootra takes its course eastward through the country of Tibet, north of the Himalaya mountains, where it is known by the name of Sanpoo, or Zanchoo. In its course eastward, it passes to the north of Teshoo Loomboo, the residence of Teshoo Lama, where it is stiled Enchoomboo; and thence flows in a wide extended bed, through many channels, and forming a multitude of islands. Its principal channel is described as narrow, but deep, and never fordable. It receives the tributary waters of the Painomtchieu, and many other streams, before it passes Lassa, and penetrates the frontier mountains that divide Tibet from Affam. It takes a vast circuit through the mountains before it enters the latter kingdom, and approaches within 220 miles of Yunan, the most western province of China. Here it turns suddenly west through Affam, where receiving a copious supply from that region of rivers, it rushes with increased volume below Rangamatty, on the borders of Bengal. From hence it hastens to meet the Ganges; these rivers being nearly related in their birth, as well as united in their termination. After entering Bengal, it makes a western point of the Garrow mountains; and then altering its course to the south, in the Dacca province, is joined by the Megna, which, although not the tenth part of its size, most unaccountably absorbs its name, and communicates its own to the great mass of waters, until they intermix with those of the Ganges, near the bay of Bengal. The whole known course of this river, including its windings, may be estimated at 1650 miles; but it is the fate of the Brahmapootra to penetrate a rude climate and stubborn soil, seldom approaching the habitation of civilized men; while the Ganges, on the contrary, flows along a fertile territory, and through rich and polished nations. Until 1765 the Brahmapootra was unknown in Europe as a capital river of India.

This

This river, during a course of 400 miles through Bengal, bears so intimate a resemblance to the Ganges, that one description answers both, except that during the last sixty miles before their junction, under the name of Megna, it forms a stream which is regularly from four to five miles wide, and, but for its freshness, might pass for an arm of the sea. The junction of these two mighty rivers below Luckipoor, now forms a gulph interspersed with islands, some equal in size to the Isle of Wight. The Bore, which is a sudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or narrow strait, prevails in the principal branches of the Ganges, and in the Megna; but the Hooghly river, and the passages between the islands and sands, situated in the gulph, formed by the confluence of the Brahmapootra and Ganges, are more subject to it than the other rivers.

The Jumna. The source of this river has never been accurately explored; but it is probably not more remote than that of the Ganges, which rises somewhere on the south side of the great Himalaya mountains. Through the province of Serinagur it flows south, in a line nearly parallel to the Ganges, from which, at the village of Gurudwar, lat. $30^{\circ} 22' N.$, it is only forty miles distant, and has as broad a stream. In this part of its course it abounds with fish, but the inhabitants are at no pains to catch them. The Jumna enters Hindostan Proper in the province of Delhi, and proceeds south nearly in a line with the Ganges, at the distance of from fifty to seventy-five miles from each other, until they gradually join at Allahabad; when the Jumna, although little inferior in magnitude, has its name absorbed by the larger and more holy stream. Including the windings, the length of its course may be estimated at 780 miles. The Jumna is only a useful barrier to the British territories during the rainy season, when military operations are, from the general state of the country, almost impracticable. It is fordable in several places above Agra before the first of October, and cannot be looked upon as a boundary of any strength above its junction with the Chumbul, ten miles below Etaweh, for more than a few weeks in the wet season. From Calpee to its junction with the Ganges there is no obstruction, and only one place between Kalpy and Etaweh where, in the dry season, the passage is rendered in some degree difficult by a bank of limestone, which it was the intention of the British Government, during the Marquis Wellesley's administration, to remove.

GOVERNMENTS.

In considering the British possessions in India, they will be viewed as divided into three governments—of Bengal, Madras or Fort St. George, and Bombay; and notice will also be taken of the insular and other separate establishments. Under each head will be included the divisions or possessions which, although not geographically, are politically comprised within its demesne.

BENGAL.

Bengal, as a government, includes not only the province properly so named, but Bahar, with Benares, part of Orissa, and some districts to the west; in this extended sense, it forms the basis and centre of the British power in India.

Bengal is situated between the twenty-first and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of Nepaul and Bootan; to the south by the Bay of Bengal; on the east it has Assam and the Ava territories; and on the west, the province of Bahar. In length (including Midnapoor in Orissa) it may be estimated at 350 miles, by 300 miles, the average breadth. Before the cessions made by the Nabob of Oude in 1801, the regions immediately governed by the presidency of Calcutta comprehended the whole soubahs of Bengal and Bahar, a part of the adjoining soubahs of Orissa, Allahabad, and Berar, and some tracts of country which had maintained their independence even in the most flourishing period of the Mogul empire: they consist of part of the Morung, Cooch Bahar, and other districts, which have become tributary since the English acquired their present influence in Bengal.

CLIMATE. The natives, from experience, assign six seasons to the year, each containing two months. The spring and dry season occupy four months, during which the heat progressively increases, until it becomes almost intolerable, even to those born in the country. The scorched inhabitants are, at length, relieved by the rainy season, which, in general, commences nearly at the same time throughout the whole province. During the first two months the rain is heavy and continual. In the two subsequent months the intervals are more frequent, and of longer duration, and the weather more sultry. The rivers, and especially the Ganges (which begins to rise even before the rainy season) continue to increase during the first two months of it, and the Ganges reaches its greatest height in the third. By this time the rivers of Bengal are swollen, and the Delta of the Ganges overflowed. At the approach of winter the rivers begin to decrease, the showers cease to fall,

and the inundation gradually drains off, and evaporates. Fogs, the natural consequence of such evaporation in cold weather, are frequent in most parts of Bengal Proper. Dew, at this season, is everywhere abundant and penetrating; and, in the higher latitudes of India, as well as in the mountainous tracts of it, frost and extreme cold are experienced. Even in the flat country, ice is obtained by the simple artifice of assisting evaporation in porous vessels, although the atmosphere is much warmer than the freezing temperature. Throughout the whole winter in Bengal, dews continue copious, and greatly assist vegetation, affording nearly as much moisture as corn requires in so loose a soil.

SOIL AND PRODUCE. The general soil of Bengal is clay, with a considerable proportion of silicious sand, fertilized by various salts, and by decayed substances, animal and vegetable. In Bengal and Bahar, only one-third of the land is estimated to be tilled, but this is exclusive of lays or fallows. Rice is the principal produce: of wheat and barley few sorts are cultivated. Different sorts of pulse, (such as pease, chiches, pigeon-pease, and kidney-beans,) constitute a valuable portion of the Bengal husbandry, because these vegetables thrive even on poor soils, and require but little culture. Millet and other small grains are also of importance. Maize is less cultivated in Bengal than in most countries where it is acclimated. The universal and vast consumption of vegetable oils is supplied by the extensive cultivation of mustard-seed, linseed, sesamum, and palma-christi, besides what is procured from the cocoa-nut. Among the most important of the productions of Bengal, are tobacco, sugar, indigo, cotton, the mulberry and poppy; each of which requires land solely appropriated to its cultivation. The orchard chiefly contributes to attach the peasant to his native soil. He feels a superstitious veneration for the trees planted by his ancestors, and derives comfort and profit from their fruit. These are formed of mango trees, the palmira, the cocoa-nut, and the date tree. Plantations of areca are common in the central parts of Bengal. The cassia thrives even on the poorest soils, and abounds even on the hilly districts. Its inflated corols are esculent and nutritious, and yield, by distillation, an intoxicating spirit. The oil expressed from its seeds is, in mountainous districts, a common substitute for butter. Clumps of bamboos abound and flourish as long as they are not too abruptly thinned. This plant is remarkable for the rapidity of its growth. Its greatest height is completed in a single year; and, during the second, its wood acquires all the hardness and elasticity which render it so useful. It supplies the peasant with materials for building, and may also yield him profit,

profit, as it is probable a single acre of thriving bamboos produces more wood than ten of any other tree. Potatoes have been introduced, and apparently with beneficial effect. Asparagus, cauliflower, and other esculent plants, are raised, but they are, comparatively, tasteless. The staple productions for exportation are, sugar, tobacco, silk, cotton, indigo, and opium. The manufacture of indigo appears to have been known and practised in India from the earliest period. From this country, whence it derives its name, Europe was anciently supplied with it, until the produce of America engrossed the market. The spirited and persevering exertions of a few individuals have restored this commerce to Bengal, solely by the superior quality of their manufactures; for in the culture no material change has been made.

Sunn. But in enumerating the growths of the British settlements in India, it is important to notice one which, in times of difficulty, may afford most essential relief and aid to this kingdom. A species of hemp, called *Sunn*, grows abundantly in many districts of Bengal, and in the island of Salfette, near Bombay. In 1796, the East India Company began to import this hemp; and in order to bring it as soon as possible into general use, sold it, without regard to immediate pecuniary advantage, at about two-thirds of the price of Russian hemp; and even presented bales of it gratis to several rope-makers, to allure them to give it a trial. They also got it made into cordage of a great variety of sizes, from ratline stuff to twenty-one-inch cables, some in the ordinary manner, and some by an improved process with the warm register invented by Captain Huddart. They also made sail-cloth, hammock-cloth, lines, and twines, and went to considerable expense in experiments to ascertain the proportionate strength of ropes made of sunn, in comparison with each other, and with Russian hemp; and the following statement may be taken as a specimen of the result:—

Of three eight-inch cables.

	tons.	cwts.	lbs.
One made of ordinary Russian hemp, bore -	12	4	0
One made of best Petersburg clean hemp -	14	8	48
One made of sunn hemp, warm registered -	15	7	52

For small cordage the sunn is found to be inferior to Russian hemp; and the cordage made of sunn in the old manner, is inferior in strength to the *best* Russian; but it is a great advantage, that cables, and other large ropes, which consume the greatest quantity of the material, can be made of the sunn

hemp more advantageously than the smaller cordage. A failure of the sunn cordage in some trials made, without attending to its different qualities, together with the usual prejudice against new articles, induced some rope-makers and seamen to exclaim against it as totally useless. The Company, nevertheless, persevered, till they found that their expenditure exceeded the amount of the sales by more than 45,000*l*. After making that sacrifice, they desisted from further importation, until prejudice should subside, and the great national advantage of lessening the dependence upon Russia, and of diminishing the unfavourable balance of trade with that country, should be more generally understood. When the differences between this country and Russia took place in 1800, the ministry expressed a wish that the importation of sunn should be resumed; and in February 1801, when the price of Russian hemp was 6*l*. a ton, they requested that the Directors would encourage the cultivation and importation of sunn. The Bengal government was, in consequence, directed to spare neither trouble nor expense in obtaining sunn of the best quality; and six hemp-dressers were sent out to instruct the natives in preparing it for manufacture. Before the sunn thus ordered could arrive, the obstruction to the acquisition of Russian hemp, was removed; and the sunn was sold at the Company's sale in the ordinary course of business. In September 1807, the Directors made an offer to the ministry to import sunn hemp for the use of the navy, and to deliver it at His Majesty's storehouses without any profit; but they prudently declined in engaging the Company to run any further risk of loss. The ministry accepted the proposal, and put a sum of money into the Company's hands for the purpose; and the sunn has accordingly been imported, and delivered.

COMMERCE. The exportation of grain from corn districts, and the returns of salt, constitute the principal object of internal trade. The importation of cotton from the western provinces, and the exchange of tobacco for betel-nut, together with some sugar, and a few articles of less note, complete the supply of internal consumption. Piece goods, silk, saltpetre, opium, sugar, and indigo, formerly passed almost wholly through the Company's hands; but now all sorts of traffic are much more open, and practised generally by every description of merchant. Grain, the internal commerce of which is entirely conducted by the natives themselves, supplies the consumption of the cities, and the export trade of Bengal. Except in cities, the bulk of the people is everywhere subsisted from the produce of their immediate neighbourhood.

Plain muslins, distinguished by their various names, according to the fineness or closeness of the texture, as well as flowered,

flowered, striped, or chequered muslins, denominated from their patterns, are fabricated chiefly in the province of Dacca; other kinds, more closely wove, are manufactured on the western side of the Delta of the Ganges; and a different sort, distinguished by a more rigid texture, does not seem to be limited to any particular districts. Coarse muslins, in the shape of turbans, handkerchiefs, &c. are made almost in every province; and the northern parts of Benares afford both plain and flowered muslins, which are not ill adapted for common uses, though incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca. Under the general name of calicoes, are included various sorts of cloth, to which no English names have been yet affixed; and are, for the most part, known in Europe by the Indian denominations. Packthread is wove into sackcloth in many places, and especially on the northern frontier of Bengal Proper, where it is employed as clothing by the mountaineers. A sort of canvass is made from cotton in the neighbourhood of Chittagong, Patna, and some other places; and blankets are made everywhere for common use. A coarse cotton cloth, dyed red, with cheap materials, is very generally used, and is chiefly manufactured in the centre of the Doab. Other sorts, dyed of various colours, but especially blue, are prepared for inland commerce, and exportation by sea. Both fine and coarse calicoes receive a topical dying, with permanent and fugitive colours, for common use, as well as for exportation. The province of Benares, the city of Patna, and the neighbourhood of Calcutta, are the principal seats of this manufacture of chintz; which appears to be an original art in India, invented long since, and brought to a perfection not yet surpassed in Europe. Dimities, of various kinds, and damask linen, are now made at Dacca, Patna, Taunda, and other places.

The neighbourhood of Moorshedabad, is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk, and tafeta, both plain and flowered. Tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are the manufacture of Benares. Plain gauzes, adapted to the uses of the country, are wove in the western and southern corners of Bengal. The weaving of mixed goods, made with silk and cotton, flourishes chiefly at Maulda, at Boglipoor, and at some towns in the district of Burdwan. A considerable quantity of filature silk is exported to the western parts of India, and much is sold at Mirzapoor, and passes thence to the Mahratta dominions, and the central parts of Hindostan. The tiffer, or wild silk, is procured in abundance from countries bordering upon Bengal, and from some districts included within its limits. The wild

filk worms are there found in several sorts of trees, which are common in the forests of Silhet, Affam, and the Deccan.

Hides are tanned in Bengal, and the natives have learnt to make shoes, boots, saddles, and other articles. Buffaloes' horns might also become an article of export, although so bulky, and difficult of stowage. An excellent species of canvas is manufactured in Calcutta, and sold much cheaper than that imported from Europe. Did freight permit, rice and other grains might be exported to Europe; and rum, liquorice, and ginger, could be furnished to any extent.

It is extremely probable that annotto, madder, coffee, cocoa, cochineal, and even tea, would thrive in British India, which now comprehends every variety of tropical climate. The plant from the seeds of which annotto is prepared, by separating the colouring matter which adheres to them, is already cultivated in Bengal; and coffee plants have thriven in botanical and private gardens. Madder is a native of the mountainous regions which border on Bengal; and this province possesses, besides, many articles which might be brought into notice by a more extended commerce.

Various drugs, used in dying, are exported to England; such as galls, turmeric, safflower, or carthamus; also myrobalans, which are here used in preference to galls. Roots of morinda, which dye a permanent colour on cotton, and blossoms of the nyctanches, which give a permanent colour to silk. Gum arabic, and many other sorts of gums and resins for manufactures, are the produce of trees that grow spontaneously, besides a multitude of medicinal gums and drugs. Vegetable oils, particularly linseed, might be supplied from these provinces, which are also adapted for the cultivation of flax. Tincal, brought from the high table land of Tibet, is among the imports to Bengal; and vegetable and mineral alkalies may hereafter become a considerable object of commerce. The fossil alkali is found in abundance; and the woods of Bengal are capable of furnishing potash in large quantities. The preparation of sal ammoniac might be advantageously connected with the manufacture of saltpetre.

Beside the articles already mentioned, which have a reference principally to Bengal, India furnishes aloes, assafoetida, benzoin, camphor, cardamums, cassia lignea, and cassia buds, arrangoes, couries, China root, cinnabar, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, elephants' teeth, gums of various sorts, mother-of-pearl, pepper, (quicksilver and rhubarb from China,) sago, scammony, fenna and saffron; and might supply anise, coriander, and cummin seeds, and many other objects, which would occupy two much room to enumerate.

Formerly

Formerly the exports to Europe, and to the United States of America, constituted the most considerable portion of Bengal commerce. From Europe are now imported metals of all sorts, wrought and unwrought, woollen of various kinds, naval and military stores, gold and silver coin and bullion, and almost every article of Europe, for the European part of the inhabitants.

The returns to Bengal from Madras, and the coast of Coromandel, consist of salt, red wood, some fine long cloth, izanees and chintzes. From the eastern islands, and the Malay coast, Bengal receives pepper, tin, wax, dammer, brimstone, gold dust, specie, betel-nut, spices, and benzoin. From China, tutenague, sugar-candy, tea, allum, dammer, porcelain, lacquered ware, and a variety of manufactured goods. From Manilla, indigo of a very fine quality, sugar, sapan wood, and specie. From the Malabar coast, sandal wood, coir rope, pepper, some cardamons, and occasionally cargoes of cotton wool; the balance is generally sunk in the annual supplies with which Bengal furnishes Bombay. From Pegue are brought teak timber, elephants' teeth, lac, and some other commodities.

BAHAR. This province extends from the 22d to the 27th degree of north latitude. It is separated from the Nepaul dominions by an extensive range of hills, which rise up on the northern frontier; on the south, it has the ancient and barbarous Hindoo province of Gundwana; on the east it is bounded by Bengal, and on the west by Allahabad, Oude, and Gundwana. The river Caramnassa was the old line of separation between the Bahar and Benares territories.

This province is one of the most fertile, highly cultivated, and populous of Hindostan, in proportion to its extent of plain arable ground, which may be computed at 26,000 square miles, divided naturally into two equal portions of territory, north and south of the Ganges, which runs here an easterly course of two hundred miles. The province of Bahar possesses great natural advantages; a temperate climate, high and fertile soil, well watered, productive of the drier grains, and all the luxuries required by the more active inhabitants of the north. Its geographical situation is central, having easy communications internally, and serving as a thoroughfare for the commerce of Bengal, and of foreign maritime countries, with the provinces of Hindostan. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, have always greatly flourished in this province. Opium may be considered as its peculiar produce and staple commodity; saltpetre is principally manufactured in the districts of Hajypoor and Sarun. Cotton cloths, for exportation, are made everywhere; in addition to which, are the ordinary pro-

ductions of grain, sugar, indigo, oil, betel-leaf, &c. An intimate connexion has always subsisted between this province and Bengal, on which account their histories and political economy are unavoidably much blended, and the general information respecting the one applies to the other.

BENARES. This is a large district, or zemindary, in the province of Allahabad, situated principally betwixt the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude. The atmosphere, which in winter is so severe as to render fires necessary, becomes so heated for three months after March, by the setting in of the hot winds, as to destroy all verdure, and would probably prove destructive to European artificial grasses, were the cultivation introduced. Turnips, radishes, and a variety of greens and garden stuffs, are raised by the natives, principally for the Europeans. There is little rice; the chief articles of produce being wheat, barley, and several species of the pea. A small quantity of flax is raised in the skirts of almost every field, for the sake of the oil; its use, as an article of clothing, is not understood. Every field of barley contains a mixture of grain or pease; and at the distance of six or ten feet, is planted a beautiful yellow flowering shrub used in dying. From Patna to Buxar, Gazypoor, Benares, and Mirzapoor, a rich and well cultivated country presents itself; and the numerous clumps of mango trees give the district the appearance of a forest, and afford an agreeable retreat to the cattle. Plain and flowered muslins, adapted to common uses, are manufactured in the northern, bastas in the western, and fanaes in the eastern parts of the province. Tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are a general manufacture. Benares is supplied with salt of its own manufacture, joined with importations from Sambher, in Ajmeer, and other places. A great quantity of excellent indigo is annually raised and exported from this province, which also furnishes a proportion of the Company's opium.

ORISSA. Of this extensive province, a part of the district of Midnapoor alone belongs to the British government, and therefore to that alone is the present description confined. Orissa is in the Deccan. Midnapoor, which is part of one of its five districts, contains about 7,000 square miles, in which are 1,500,000 inhabitants; while the whole of the province has a population not exceeding four millions. The cultivation is in proportion to the increase of population; the manufactures are few, and in a declining state. Some fanaes are made in the district, and more are imported from the contiguous countries to the south and east; plain gauzes, adapted for the uses of the country, are also wove. The European planters have introduced

troduced the cultivation of indigo, but the quantity exported has never been great.

CITIES. Within the limits of Bengal are three large cities; Calcutta, Moorshedabad, and Dacca; beside many very populous trading towns. In Bahar the chief town is Patna, but there are others of considerable size and note. In Benares, the principal town is that which bears the name of the province; and the town called Midnapoor is the only place at all worthy of that name in the British part of Orissa.

CALCUTTA. It will be recollected, that the selection of the spot on which this city, the British capital in India, is placed, was made rather through necessity than otherwise, and that observation will answer many objections against the position as unhealthy, by reason of the adjacent lakes and jungles. The city stands about 100 miles from the sea, on the east side of the western branch of the Ganges, named by Europeans the Hooghly river. In approaching Calcutta from the sea, a stranger is struck with its magnificent appearance; the elegant villas on each side of the river, the Company's botanic gardens, the spires of the churches, temples, and minarets, and the strong and regular citadel of Fort William. The town and suburbs extend along the east side of the river above six miles, but the breadth varies at different places. The esplanade, between the town and Fort William, leaves a grand opening, along the edge of which is placed the new government-house erected by Marquis Wellesley; and continued on in a line with this edifice, is a range of magnificent houses, ornamented with spacious verandahs. Chowringhee, formerly a collection of native huts, is now an entire village of palaces, and extends for a considerable distance into the country. The architecture of the houses is Grecian. The principal square extends about five hundred yards each way, and contains in the centre an ample tank, surrounded by a handsome wall and railing, and having a gradation of steps to the bottom, which is sixty feet from the top of its banks. A range of indifferent looking houses, known by the name of the Writer's Buildings, occupies one side of the square; and near to it, on the site of the old fort, taken by Seraja ul Dowlah, in 1757, is a custom-house, with several other handsome buildings. The black-hole is now part of a warehouse, and filled with merchandize. A monument is erected facing the gate, to commemorate the unfortunate persons who there perished; but it has been struck by lightning, and is itself fast going to decay.

Beside the government-house, which is remarkably splendid, the other public buildings are, a town-house, the court of justice,

justice, and two churches of the established religion, one of which makes a very handsome appearance, but the other is a plain building. There are also churches for the Portuguese Catholics, another for Christians of the Greek persuasion, an Armenian church, and many small Hindoo temples and Mahomedan mosques. The hospital and jail are to the south of the town. The botanic garden is beautifully situated on the west bank of the Ganges; above it is an extensive plantation of teak, which is not a native of this part of India, but which thrives well. There is a private dock-yard nearly opposite to Fort William, and another one mile below it, on the same side of the water.

The black town extends along the river to the north of Calcutta, and exhibits a remarkable contrast to the part inhabited by the Europeans. It is extremely large, and swarming with population. The streets are narrow, dirty, and unpaved; the houses of two stories are of brick, with flat terraced roofs; but the great majority are mud cottages, covered with small tiles, with side walls of mats, bamboos, and other combustible materials.

Fort William stands about a quarter of a mile below the town, and is superior, in strength and regularity, to any fortress in India. It is an octagon; five of the faces are regular, while the forms of the other three, next the river, are according to local circumstances. This citadel was commenced by Lord Clive, soon after the battle of Plassey, and was intended by him to be complete in every respect; but it has since been discovered, that it is erected on too extensive a scale, as the number of troops required to garrison it properly, would be able to keep the field. It is capable of containing 15,000 men; the works are so extensive that 10,000 would be required to defend them efficiently, and they have cost the East India Company two millions sterling. The barracks make a very handsome appearance, and afford excellent accommodation both to the privates and officers.

Calcutta possesses the advantage of an excellent inland navigation, foreign imports being transported with great facility on the Ganges and its subsidiary streams, to the northern nations of Hindostan, while the valuable productions of the interior are received by the same channels. Cloths, amounting in value to a million sterling, belonging to native merchants, are, on an average, deposited in Calcutta for sale, and every other species of merchandize in an equal proportion. In September 1808, the Calcutta government bank was established, with a capital of fifty lacks of rupees, of which government have ten lacks, and individuals the remainder. The notes issued are for not less than ten rupees, or more than 10,000.

There have been various opinions as to the population of Calcutta, but it does not appear any correct census has been taken. In 1802, the police magistrates estimated it at 600,000; probably half a million will approximate to the real number. The adjacent country is also so thickly inhabited, that, in 1802, the police magistrates calculated that Calcutta, with a circuit of twenty miles, comprehended 2,225,000 souls.

The maintenance and education of children belonging to Europeans in India, have, on account of their number, become objects of great importance. Two institutions have been formed, one for officers' children, and the other for those of private soldiers. To these charitable foundations may be added a free-school, and native hospital.

MOORSLEDABAD. This town, which was formerly the capital of Bengal, extends eight miles along both sides of the most sacred branch of the Ganges, named the Bhagiratty, or Cossimbazar river, about 120 miles above Calcutta. The buildings are in general bad, and the palace of the nabobs so insignificant, as to be passed without observation. The streets are narrow and inconvenient, and almost impassable for European wheeled carriages. The town is a place of great inland traffic, and the river is seen constantly covered with boats, which are examined at the custom-house. The neighbourhood is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk, taffeta, both plain and flowered, and many other sorts for inland commerce and exportation.

DACCA. Dacca, the capital of the eastern part of Bengal, is situated beyond the principal stream of the Ganges, but a very large branch of that river runs past it. Few situations are better calculated for inland commerce, as its river communicates with all the inland navigations by a direct course. It lies about one hundred miles above the mouth of the Ganges, and 180 by the road from Calcutta. The present town stands on a great space, and, including the suburbs, extends six miles along the banks of the river; but its breadth is not in proportion. Like other native towns, it is a mixture of brick and thatch houses, with very narrow and crooked streets. The latter description of houses being of very combustible materials, are generally burnt once, and sometimes twice, in a year, and their combustion is viewed, by their owners, with an apathy truly Asiatic. Into large earthen pots, sunk in the floor, they throw the few valuables they possess; and mats, thatch, and bamboos being plenty, the expenditure of a few rupees affords them a new dwelling. These fires generally originate with the owners of the house-building materials; and when a fleet of boats, loaded with them, arrives, a conflagration may be expected

pected to ensure a ready sale. The city still continues very populous, although it suffered considerably, apparently remote as it is, by the French revolution, its beautiful fabrics having been in great request at the old French court. The number of inhabitants may be estimated to exceed 150,000, of whom more than one-half are Mahomedans.

PATNA. This city, the capital of Bahar, is of great antiquity, and supposed by some to be the site of the ancient Palibothra. By the modern Mahomedans it is named Azimabad, and by the Hindoos Sri Nagur. It is situated on the south side of the Ganges, which is here five miles wide during the rainy season, and the eastern limits not discernible. The town of Patna is one continued street for many miles along the Ganges, the houses of the natives being generally of mud; but those of the Europeans, which extend from Bankipoor, are of brick, and make a very handsome appearance, which is not the case with the rest of the city. This town is extremely prosperous and populous; the number of inhabitants has never been accurately ascertained, but they cannot be estimated at less than 150,000; yet every article of food is remarkably cheap. A large quantity of saltpetre is annually dispatched from hence to Calcutta, for internal consumption and exportation. Chintzes and dimities of various kinds are manufactured, and also cloths resembling diaper and damask linen. In the vicinity, flannels, well wove, but ill fulled, are made, and also a sort of canvas from cotton. The Company, many years ago, erected a depot to contain rice. It is a building of stone, in the shape of a bee-hive, with two winding staircases on the outside, which have been ascended on horseback. By these stairs the grain is poured in at the top, there being a small door at the bottom to take it out. The walls at the bottom, although twenty-one feet thick, have given way; a circumstance of very little consequence, as, were it filled, (which it never was) it would not contain one day's consumption for the inhabitants of the province. It cost 120,000 rupees. Here are also the remains of the British factory, where the massacre of two hundred prisoners was perpetrated in 1763, by the German adventurer Somro (Summers), then in the service of Mir Cossim, immediately after which the city was captured by the British troops under Major Adams, and has ever since remained in their possession.

BENARES. This is a celebrated city in the province of Allahabad, the capital of the Benares districts. The Sanscrit name is Varanshi, from Vara and Nashi, two rivers. The Ganges here forms a fine sweep of about four miles in length; on the external side of the curve, which is the most elevated, is situated

situated the holy city of Benares. It is covered with buildings to the water's edge, and the opposite being level, the whole may be viewed at once. The streets are so extremely narrow, that it is difficult to penetrate them, even on horseback. The houses are built of stone, some six stories high, close to each other, with terraces on the summit, and extremely small windows, to keep them cool and prevent inspection. The number of stone and brick houses, from one to six stories high, is upward of twelve thousand. The mud houses above 16,000; and, in 1803, the permanent inhabitants, by enumeration, exceeded 582,000. The houses of the English at Secrole are handsome, although they look naked for want of trees; but this is absolutely necessary in India, on account of the harbour they afford to musquitoes. There are but few Europeans; a judge, collector, and register, with a few other civil servants, constitute the Company's establishment; to which may be added a few private merchants and planters. Reading and writing are taught here at the same time. The boys are collected on a smooth flat of sand; and, with the finger, or a small reed, form the letters in the sand, which they learn to pronounce at the same time. When the space before each scholar is filled up with writing, it is effaced, and prepared for a new lesson. It is hardly necessary to observe, that this is the system which Dr. Bell has perfected and introduced into England, and which is known by his name.

GOVERNMENT.

DISTRICTS. For the purposes of government, Bengal has been, in modern times, divided into the following districts; Backergunge, Birbhoom, Burdwan, Chittagong, Hooghly, Jessore, Mymunfingh, Moorshedabad, Nuddea, Purneah, Rajeshy, Rungpoor, Silhet, Tipperah, the 24 Pergunnahs, and to which, from its long connexion, must be added Midnapoor, although it properly belongs to Orissa.

THE SUPREME COUNCIL. The constitution of this body by the statute 33 Geo. III. c. 52., with the authority of the governor and council, are already mentioned.

THE CHURCH. It was not until the year 1813, that the British government thought fit to make regular provision for a church establishment in their Indian territories. In that year an act was passed, from which the following regulations are extracted. In case a bishop and three archdeacons shall be established in India by His Majesty's letters patent, the Court of Directors shall cause to be paid to the bishop 5,000*l.* a year, and

and to each of the archdeacons 2,000*l.*; to commence on their entering upon their offices, and to be in lieu of all fees, perquisites, and emoluments whatsoever. The bishop is not to use or exercise any jurisdiction or episcopal functions but those limited by his patent; His Majesty may, from time to time, grant such ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and the exercise of such episcopal functions, in India, as he shall think necessary. The warrant for issuing any letters patent respecting any such bishoprick or archdeaconry, must be countersigned by the president of the Board of Controul. The King may grant, when they shall have exercised their office in India fifteen years, to the bishop, a sum not exceeding 1,500*l.* per annum, and to each archdeacon a pension not exceeding 800*l.* per annum.

In pursuance of this statute, a bishop was appointed in 1814, with the limited number of archdeacons. Of the success of the measure in extending christianity over those wide-spread and populous regions, it would, as yet, be rash to pronounce. The fervent wishes of every believer must be in favour of the measure, and rational hope may accompany those wishes.

LAW COURTS. For the administration of justice throughout the provinces subject to the presidency, there are proper tribunals in the civil and criminal departments.

The *Supreme Court* is stationed at Calcutta. It consists of a chief justice, and two puisne judges, nominated by the Crown. Its jurisdiction extends to all British subjects, that is, natives, or the descendants of natives of Great Britain in India, and to all the inhabitants of Calcutta; but it has no cognizance of the land revenue. In suits, to which the natives are parties, the judges are enjoined by act of parliament to respect the usages of the country. In matters of inheritance, or contract, the rule of decision is to be the law acknowledged by the litigant parties. Should only one of the parties be a Mahomedan, or Hindoo, it is to be the law acknowledged by the defendant. Criminal offences are tried by a jury, consisting exclusively of British subjects; in trials of a civil nature the judges decide both on the law and the fact. The supreme court also tries criminal charges against the Company's servants, and civil suits in which the Company or the Company's servants are concerned. The law practitioners, attached to the Supreme Court, are fourteen attornies and six barristers.

There are six *Courts of Appeal* and *Circuit* attached to six different divisions, and forty inferior courts, or rather magistrates, stationed in so many different districts and cities.

The *Courts of Circuit* consist of three judges, with an assistant, together with native officers, both Mahomedan and Hindoo. The judges make their circuit at stated periods of the year,

year, and hold also regular and frequent gaol deliveries. They try criminal offences according to the Mahomedan law; but when the sentence is capital, or imprisonment is awarded beyond a defined period, it does not take effect until it receives confirmation from the superior criminal court in Calcutta, named the *Nizamut Adawlet*. The principal business of this court is to revise trials; but it is, in no case, permitted to aggravate the severity of the sentence.

In the country districts, the officer who, in his criminal capacity, has the appellation of magistrate, is also the civil judge of the city or district in which he resides. He tries all suits of a civil nature, provided the cause of action have originated, the property concerned be situated, or the defendant be resident, within his jurisdiction. To try suits of a small limited amount, the judge may appoint native commissioners, from whose decisions an appeal lies to the judge. With a few exceptions, the decisions of the judge are appealable to the provincial courts of appeal, within the jurisdiction of which he resides. The ultimate court of appeal, in civil matters, sits in the city of Calcutta, and is styled the *Sudder Dewanny Adawlet*. To this court all causes respecting personal property, beyond 5,000 rupees value, are appealable; with regard to real property, it is ascertained by certain rules, differing according to its nature and tenure. From this court an appeal lies to the King in council, if the value amounts to 5,000*l.* sterling.

Under the Mahomedan governments, suitors pleaded their own causes, and the practice continued till 1793, when regular native advocates were appointed. These advocates are chosen out of the Mahomedan college at Calcutta, and Hindoo college at Benares, and the rate of fees is fixed by public regulation. This institution ensures suitors against negligence or misconduct on the part either of the judge or of his native assistant; the advocates being often as conversant in the business of the court as either of those officers. Written pleadings have been introduced in the native languages, for the purpose of bringing litigation to a point, and enforcing as much precision as the habits of the people will admit. Before this, the charge and defence consisted of confused oral complaints, loudly urged on one side, and as loudly retorted on the other. In receiving evidence, great indulgence is granted to the scruples of caste, and the prejudices against the public appearance of females, so prevalent in eastern countries.

COLLEGE. The prodigious extent and population of the British possessions having produced the necessity of governing and administering justice to many millions of men, the embarrassments which resulted from the want of a competent number of

of British subjects versed in the languages, and other learning necessary for the several purposes connected with government, jurisprudence, and commerce, were strongly felt both at home and in India. On the 18th of August 1800, the Marquis of Wellesley, then Governor-general, matured the plan for establishing a college at Calcutta, which he detailed in a very able state paper, which was adopted as a minute of council, and carried into complete effect. A body of statutes has been framed. The Governor-general is patron and visitor; the members of the supreme council, and the judges of the superior courts are governors; there are professors in the law of British India, in the Arabic, Persian, Hindoo, Sanscrit, Mahratta, and Bengalee languages, and proper officers. By act of parliament, the Board of Controul may send out to the several governments of the Company, through the medium of the Court of Directors, such orders and instructions as they shall think fit, respecting the college and all seminaries which may be established under the authority of the Company.

MADRAS.

The territories subject to the presidency of Fort St. George, or Madras, comprehend nearly the whole of India south of the Krishna river (improperly named the Peninsula), and also a large province in the Deccan, named the Northern Circars. Within these boundaries are three princes, who collect the revenues, and exercise a certain degree of power in the internal management of their respective states; but, with reference to external politics, are wholly subordinate to the British government. They are protected by a subsidiary force, and furnish large annual contributions. These princes are the Rajahs of Mysore, Travancor, and Cochin; the rest of the country is under the immediate jurisdiction of the governor and council at Madras; and, for the administration of justice, and collection of the revenue, has been subdivided into the districts of the Northern Circars, the Carnatic, Mysore and Carnatic.

THE NORTHERN CIRCARS. That portion of the British dominion on the Coromandel coast, commonly called the Northern Circars, from its relative situation to Fort St. George, is a narrow slip of maritime country, extending from $51^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ to the 20th degree of north latitude; and from $79^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ to $85^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ east longitude from Greenwich. The sea bounds it to the east in a direct course N. E. ¹ E. along a coast 470 measured miles in length, from Mootapillee, dependent on Guntour, near its southern extremity, to the town of Malond in Orissa, on the borders

borders of the Chilka lake. In almost a parallel direction on the west, from fifty to seventy miles inland, it is divided from the interior provinces of the Soubah of Hyderabad by a range of small detached hills, extending to the banks of the Goadeveri; and in like manner separated from Berar, to the north of that river, by a great continued ridge of mountains; from Goomsur the same unbroken chain curves to the eastward, and together with the Chilka lake, forms an almost impenetrable barrier of fifty miles to the north, on the side of the Mahrattas of Cuttack, excepting a tongue of land, between that lake and the sea, a mile in breadth at Maloud, and intersected by the deep water communication of Manicpatam, at all times unfordable. Toward the south, the small river Gondegama, which empties itself at Mootapillee, separates this territory from the districts of Ongole, and thus forms, on that side, the most distinguishable modern frontier to the Carnatic Payengaut. The area, or superficial contents of the circars, taken in their greatest extent of accessible productive land, may be computed at 17,000 square geographic miles; of which, perhaps, only one-fifth is in cultivation or fallow, twice that proportion in pasture, and the remainder woods, water, towns, barren hills, or that sandy waste, three miles in breadth, which borders the whole extent of the coast. The grand divisions of this whole territory are naturally and properly five; being so many portions of its length, principally marked by rivers, running across from the hills on the west to the sea; but beside these, a sixth district has been formed from the maritime border of the four southerly circars or provinces, to serve as an appendage to, and secure the salt made, or customs collected at, the ports of Nizampatam, on a southern outlet of the Kistna, and of Massulipatam on one of its northern branches, as well as at their respective dependencies along the coast. The divisions are:

1. *Guntour*, or *Moorteza-nagur*, the most southerly province, which is of a circular form, comprehending an area of 2,500 square miles.
2. *Condapillee*, or *Mustafa-nagur*; and, 3. *Ellore*, adjacent to each other, as well as to the circar just described.
4. *Rajemundry*.
5. The districts of *Massulipatam*, which form the least of the grand divisions of the circars, and are only portions of the maritime border, dismembered, for certain uses, from the four provinces already described.
6. *Cicacole*, anciently *Kulling*, the most northerly and last in order of the grand divisions.

THE CARNATIC. This district comprises, 1. *Nellore* and *Ongole*, including part of the western Pollams or Zemindaries.

2. Northern division of *Arcot*, including *Sativaid*, *Pulicat*,

Coongoody in the Barramahal, part of Ballaghaut, and of the western Pollams or Zemindaries. 3. *Chingleput*, or the *Jag-hire*. 4. Southern division of Arcot, including Cuddalore and Pondicherry. 5. *Trichinopoly*. 6. *Tanjore*.

MYSORE and CARNATIC. The district thus described consists of *Dindigul*, including Madura, Manapara, Pollams, Ramnad, and Shevagunga, forming part of the southern Carnatic.

THE SOUTHERN CARNATIC. This district is confined to Tinnevelley, which occupies the south-eastern extremity of what is called the peninsula.

MYSORE. The district thus named includes Bellary Gudah, being the Balaghaut ceded districts; also Seringapatam, Salem and Kistnagherry, Coimbetoor, Canara, Malabar, and Madras.

The provinces subject to the government of Fort George, with the exception of Canara, Malabar, and other districts, in which traces of private property still existed when they came under the British government, exhibited nearly the same system of territorial and revenue policy. The land belonged to government, and to the ryots or cultivators; but where the share of government absorbed nearly the whole of the landlord's rent, the ryots possessed little more interest in the soil than that of hereditary tenancy. The country was divided into villages. A village (in this part of India,) geographically, is a tract of country, comprising some hundreds or thousands of acres of arable and waste land; politically, a village is a little republic or corporation, having within itself its municipal officers and corporate artificers. Its boundaries are seldom altered, and, though sometimes injured, and even desolated by war, famine, and epidemical distempers, the same name, boundaries, interests, and even families, continue for ages. The government share was generally received from rice lands in kind, at rates varying from forty to sixty per cent. of the gross produce, after deducting certain portions distributed before the threshing commences. The share of government from dry grain land was generally received in cash, varying with the produce. The total population of these provinces has been estimated at twelve millions; and, from the long tranquillity and comparative plenty they enjoy, it is certainly increasing annually. In this estimate the inhabitants of the territories subject to the rajahs of Mysore, Travancor, and Cochin, are not included.

MADRAS. The city of Madras, the capital of the British possessions in the Deccan and south of India, is situated in lat. $13^{\circ} 5' N.$ long. $80^{\circ} 25' E.$ The approach from the sea is very striking. The low flat sandy shores extending to the north and south, and the small hills that are seen inland,

exhibiting an appearance of barrenness, which improves on closer inspection. The beach seems alive with the crowds that cover it; the public offices and storehouses near the shore are fine buildings, with colonnades to the upper stories, supported on arched bases, covered with the beautiful shell mortar of Madras, hard, smooth and polished. Within a few yards of the sea the fortifications of Fort George present an interesting appearance; and at a distance, minarets and pagodas are seen mixed with trees and gardens. With all these external advantages, it would be difficult to find a worse place for a capital than Madras, situated as it is on the margin of a coast where runs a rapid current, and against which a tremendous surf breaks even in the mildest weather. The boats used for crossing the surf are large and light, and made of very thin planks, sewed together, with straw in the seams instead of caulking, which it is supposed would render them too stiff, the great object being, to have them as flexible as possible, to yield to the waves like leather. When within the influence of the surf, the coxswain stands up, and beats time with great agitation with his voice and foot, while the rowers work their oars backwards, until overtaken by a strong surf curling up, which sweeps the boat along with a frightful violence. Every oar is then plied forwards with the utmost vigour, to prevent the wave from taking the boat back as it recedes; until at length, by a few successive surfs, the boat is dashed high and dry on the beach.

The boats belonging to ships in the roads sometimes proceed to the back of the surf, where they anchor on the outside of it, and wait for the country boats from the beach to convey their passengers on shore. When the weather is so unsettled as to make it dangerous even for the country boats to pass and repass, a flag is displayed at the beach-house, to caution all persons on board ship against landing. Large ships generally moor in nine fathoms with the flag-staff W. N. W., about two miles from the shore. From the beginning of October until the end of December is considered the most dangerous season to remain in the Madras roads.

The fishermen and lower classes of natives employed on the water, use a species of floating machine, of a very simple construction, named a catamaran. It is formed of two or three light logs of wood, eight or ten feet in length, lashed together, with a small piece of wood inserted between them to serve as a stern piece. When ready for the water, the catamaran holds two men, who with their paddles launch themselves through the surf to fish, or to carry letters or small quantities of refreshments to ships, when no boats can venture out. These men

wear a pointed cap made of matting, where they secure the letters, which take no damage, however often the men are washed off the catamaran, which they regain by swimming. Medals are given to those who distinguish themselves by saving persons in danger, or by their care in conveying papers through the surf in dangerous weather.

Madras differs in appearance considerably from Calcutta, having no European town, except a few houses in the fort, the settlers residing entirely in their garden-houses; repairing to the fort in the morning for the transaction of their business, and returning in the afternoon. Fort George, as it now stands, is a strong handsome fortress, not too large, situated within a few yards of the sea; in the middle stands the original fortress, now mostly converted into government offices and the town residences of some of the civil servants. To the southward is the church, at the back of which is the abode of the governor. To the northward of the old fort stands the exchange, on which, in 1796, a light-house was erected; the light of which is 90 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen from ships' decks seventeen miles off.

The Government-house, which is large and handsome, is in the Choultry-plain, being situated on the edge of the esplanade; and near to it are Chepauk gardens, the residence of the nabob of the Carnatic, which intercept the breeze from the sea, and confine the view. The garden-houses about Madras are generally only of one story, but of a pleasing style of architecture, having their porticos and verandahs supported by chunamed pillars. The walls are of the same materials, either white or coloured; and the floors are covered with rattan mats. They are surrounded by fields planted with trees and shrubs, which have changed the barren sand of the plain into a rich scene of vegetation; but flowers and fruits are still raised with difficulty. During the hot winds, mats made of the roots of the cusa grass, which has a pleasant smell, are placed against the doors and windows, and are constantly watered; so that the air which blows through them spreads an agreeable freshness and fragrance throughout the room. The moment, however, the cooling influence of these mats is quitted, the sensation is like entering a furnace, although taking the average of the whole year, Madras experiences less extreme heat than Calcutta. In January the lowest is about 70° , and in July the highest 91° .

The botanical garden, reared at a vast expence by the late Dr. James Anderson, was ruined by a hurricane in 1807.

In the neighbourhood of Madras the soil, when well cultivated, produces a good crop of rice, provided, in the wet season, the usual quantity of rain falls. In some places the industry
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of the natives creates by irrigation a refreshing verdure. Numerous small canals from the Saymbrumbacum tank convey a constant supply of water to most of the neighbouring fields, and fertilize them without the trouble of machinery. The fields yield two crops in the year. In November, 1803, a navigable canal was opened from the Black Town to Ennore river, 10,560 yards in length; the greatest breadth at the top forty feet, and its greatest depth twelve feet. By this channel boats go to Pulicat, from whence Madras is supplied with charcoal.

The Black Town stands northward of the fort, from which it is separated by a spacious esplanade. It was formerly surrounded by fortifications sufficient to resist the incursions of cavalry; but having long become unnecessary, they are now much neglected. In this town reside the native Armenian and Portuguese merchants, and many Europeans unconnected with government. Like other native towns, it is irregular and confused, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houses, and makes a better appearance at a distance than when closely inspected.

A supreme court of justice is established at Madras, on the model of that in Bengal. It consists of a chief justice, and three other judges, who are barristers of not less than five years' standing, appointed by the king. The salary of the chief justice is six thousand pounds per annum, and of the puisne judges five thousand pounds each, to be paid at the exchange of eight shillings per pagoda. After seven years' service in India, if the judges of the supreme court return to Europe, the king is authorised to allow the chief judges not more than 1,600*l.*, and to the junior judges not more than 1,200*l.* per annum. The law practitioners attached to the court are seven attornies and four barristers.

Among the charitable institutions at Madras are a male and female orphan asylum, both admirably conducted.

BOMBAY.

BOMBAY. The city and island thus denominated anciently formed a part of the province of Aurungabad, but now constitute the principal British settlement on the west coast of India. Bombay is about ten miles in length, by three in average breadth. It has now lost all pretensions to its insular name; as, in 1805, Mr. Duncan completed a causeway, or vellard, at Sion, across the narrow arm of the sea which separated it from the contiguous island of Salfette; an operation of infinite service to the farmers and gardeners who supply the

Bombay market, but which is said to have had a prejudicial effect on the harbour.

The fortifications of Bombay have been improved, but are deemed too extensive, and would require a numerous garrison. Toward the sea they are extremely strong, but to the land side do not offer the same resistance; and to an enemy landed, and capable of making regular approaches, the fort must surrender. The town, within the walls, was begun by the Portuguese, and those houses that have since been built are on the old construction, with wooden pillars supporting wooden verandahs; the consequence of which is, that Bombay bears no external resemblance to the other two presidencies. The Government-house is a handsome building, with several good apartments; but the largest on each floor is a passage-room to the others.

The northern part of the fort is inhabited by Parsee families, who are not remarkably cleanly in their domestic concerns, nor in the streets where they live. The view from the fort is extremely beautiful toward the bay, which is here and there broken by islands, many of which are covered with trees, while the lofty and curiously-shaped hills of the table-land form a striking back-ground. The sea is on three sides of the fort, and on the fourth the esplanade; at the extremity of which is the Black Town, amidst cocoa-nut trees.

Bombay is the only principal settlement in India where the rise of the tides is sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale; the highest spring-tides reach to seventeen feet, but the usual height is fourteen feet. The docks are the Company's property, and the king's ships pay a high monthly rent for repairs. They are entirely occupied by Parsees, who possess an absolute monopoly in all the departments, the person who contracts for the timber being a Parsee, and the inspector of it, on delivery, of the same cast. On the 23d of June, 1810, the *Minden*, of seventy-four guns, built entirely by Parsees, without the least European assistance, was launched from these dock-yards. The teak forests, from whence these yards are supplied, lie along the western side of the Ghauts, and other contiguous ridges of hills on the north and east of Bassein; the numerous rivers that descend from them affording water-carriage for the timber. This little island commands the entire trade of the north-west coast of India, together with that of the Persian gulph. The principal cargo of a ship, bound from Bombay or Surat to China, is cotton. The other part consists of sandal-wood and pepper, from the Malabar coast; gums, drugs, and pearls, from Arabia, Abyssinia, and Persia; elephants' teeth, cornelians, and other produce of Cambay; sharks' fins, birds' nests, &c. from the Maldivé and Lackadive islands. For
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the European market, Bombay is an excellent place to procure gums and drugs of all sorts, Mocha coffee, barilla, cornelians, agates, and also blue and other Surat goods.

A court of judicature is held at Bombay, by a single judge with the title of Recorder; the authority and practice of this tribunal being altogether conformable to those of the supreme court at Calcutta. The law practitioners of the court are three barristers and eight attornies.

At present, Bombay may be said to rule the whole western coast of India, and its influence is felt along the coasts of Persia and Arabia; but the territorial possessions under its immediate jurisdiction are small, compared with those of Bengal and Madras. They consist principally of the districts of Surat, Broach, Cambay, Goelwarah, and other countries extending along both sides of the gulf of Cambay, a considerable proportion of which were obtained since 1802, from Arcund Row Guicowar, a Mahratta prince, and the whole are contained within the province of Gujrat, of which they compose by far the most fertile, cultivated, and populous portion. The inhabitants of this region are among the most intelligent and industrious of Hindostan, and from hence large quantities of cotton manufactures are exported to all parts of the world. From these districts also a great export of the raw material takes place, partly the produce of the lands within the Company's influence, and partly brought from the interior, on the large navigable rivers, such as the Nerbuddah, Tuptee, Mahy, and Mehindry, which, with many others of smaller note, empty their streams into the gulf of Cambay.

The principal sea-port towns, besides Bombay, are Surat, Broach, Cambay, and Gogso, from which are procured the best native seamen in India; the natives along the gulf, particularly on the west side, being much addicted to navigation. The contiguous island of Salfette is also subordinate to this government, but, most unaccountably, continues to exhibit the same state of desolation in which it was originally received.

It is difficult, with any precision, to define the extent of the Bombay territorial possessions, as some of the Peishwa's districts are intermingled with them, and approach within a few miles of the city of Surat. On a rough estimate, however, they may be calculated to comprehend ten thousand square miles, containing a population exceeding altogether two millions and a half, in the probable proportion of one Mahomedan to fifteen Hindoos. Nearly nine-tenths of all the existing Parsees are resident within the Bombay limits; but no estimate of their numbers, approaching to exactness, has ever been made.

SURAT. Surat is one of the most ancient cities in India, being mentioned in the Raurayuna, a Hindoo poem of great antiquity. After the discovery of the passage to the east by the Cape of Good Hope, it was much frequented by vessels belonging to all European nations, who exported from it pearls, diamonds, ambergrise, civet, musk, gold, silks and cottons of every description, spices, fragrant woods, indigo, saltpetre, and all other objects of Indian traffic. From hence, also, great multitudes of pilgrims embarked for Arabia; on which account Surat was always considered by the Mahomedans of Hindostan as one of the gates of Mecca. It is now one of the largest, if not the very largest, city of Hindostan, although its trade has unavoidably suffered by the proximity of Bombay, to which place a considerable portion has been transferred. In 1796 one estimate raised the population of Surat so high as 800,000 souls; but another reduced it to 600,000, which probably exceeds the actual number. Large ships cannot ascend the river, but cast anchor about twenty miles below the town. The harbour, on the whole, is not commodious; it is, however, one of the best on this coast during the prevalence of the N. E. and N. W. winds. The anchorage is dangerous with winds from the south and west.

CEDED DISTRICTS.

THE BALAGHAUT CEDED DISTRICTS. In the south of India a stupendous wall of mountains, named the Ghauts, rises abruptly from the low country, supporting, in the nature of a terrace, a vast extent of level plains, which are so elevated as to affect the temperature, and render the climate cooler. This table-land extends from the Krishna to the southern extremity of the Mysore, and is named Balaghaut, or above the Ghauts, in contradistinction to Payenghaut, or below the Ghauts. This extensive and fruitful region formed the ancient Hindoo empire of Karnata, no part of which was below the mountains, although in modern times the term has been so misapplied by the Mahomedans and Europeans, as to signify exclusively the country below the Ghauts.

In the present article the name Balaghaut is restricted to the territory possessed by the British government, and subdivided into the two collectorships of Bellary and Cudapah. This tract was acquired by treaty with the Nizam, dated the 12th of October, 1800, and comprehends all the territory situated south of the Toombuddra and Krishna rivers, which fell to the Nizam's share by the treaties of Seringapatam
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in 1792, and Myfore in 1799, together with the Talook of Adoui, and all his highness's other districts south of these rivers. To this large portion of country two-thirds of Punganoor were added, and part of Goodiput; having been exchanged for certain districts, which had been reserved by the treaty of Myfore, as the eventual portion of the Peshwah of the Mah-rattas, but which, by a supplementary treaty in December 1803, fell into the possession of the Company.

Under the ancient native governments, this quarter of the Balaghaut was subdivided into many districts, the chief of which were Carnoul, Adoui, Commin, Harponully, Rydroog, Balhary, Gooty, Wandicotta, or Gundicotta, Cudapah, Gur-rumcondah, Punganoor, and Sidhout.

The principal towns are Bisanagur, Balhary, Adoui, Gooty, Cudapah, Harponully, and Gurrumcondah.

From the elevated surface of this region it has no large rivers, except the *Kbrisna* and *Toombuddra*, which are its proper boundaries, but it possesses many smaller streams. Nearly all the lands are under the dry cultivation. Vast tracks remain unoccupied, which may be ploughed at once, without the labour and expence of clearing, as more than three millions of acres were formerly cultivated, and might be retrieved and occupied. Indigo is raised and exported in considerable quantities; the coarse sugar manufactory is on the increase; cotton is one of the chief productions; the peasantry are a very industrious race, and most of them husbandmen by cast. In a political and military point of view, these districts are of great value; for they are now what the Carnatic formerly was, the countries from which our armies in the Deccan must draw all their supplies of cattle and provisions. When under the Nizam, the revenue of the ceded districts was rapidly declining. An army was constantly in the field, the expence of which consumed the collections; and the country was altogether in such a distracted state, that the Nizam seemed to have given it up to the Company, because he could not retain it in subjection.

INSULAR POSSESSIONS.

BENCOOLEN. This establishment is situated on the south-west coast of Sumatra. It came into the possession of the East India Company in 1685, and large sums were expended in fortifying and maintaining it; but in process of time, the expences of government exceeding the revenue 90,000*l.* per annum, and the settlement having become of little importance as a commercial establishment, since pepper, the only produce of the adjacent

adjacent country, could be more advantageously supplied from Prince of Wales' Island and Malabar, it was not judged expedient to keep up the establishment as a principal government. Accordingly, in August 1801, the directors ordered it to be placed under the management of a resident and four assistants, subject to the immediate direction of the government of Bengal. The civil servants, rendered supernumeraries by this arrangement, were transferred to Madras. Nothing is now sent from Bencoolen but one solitary annual cargo of pepper, worth 15,000*l*.

PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND. This settlement, called by the natives Pulo Penang, or Betel Nut Island, is situated in the straits of Malacca, off the west coast of the Malay peninsula, the N. E. point of which is in latitude $5^{\circ} 25'$ N. long. $100^{\circ} 19'$ E. It is of an irregular four-sided figure, and computed to contain nearly 160 square miles. Throughout the centre is a range of lofty hills, decreasing in magnitude as they approach the south, and from these flow numerous fine streams, which supply the island abundantly with water. The soil is various; generally a light black mould mixed with gravel or clay, and in many parts sandy. The whole island had been for ages covered with forests, from which originated a fine vegetable mould formed by the decayed leaves, which, as the woods were cleared, and the surface exposed to the weather, in a considerable degree disappeared; but the soil in the interior is still equal to any sort of cultivation. These forests produce excellent timber for ship-building, and supply masts of any dimensions, lower masts of one piece having been procured here for a 74-gun ship. Much of the north, and nearly all the south and east sides of the island, are in a state of cultivation. The principal productions are pepper, betel nut, betel leaf, coconuts, coffee, sugar, paddy, ginger, yams, sweet potatoes, and a great variety of vegetables. The fruits are the mangosteen, rambuteen, pine apples, guavas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, &c. The exotics raised here are cloves, nutmegs, cinnamon, pimento, kyapootee, colalava, and a number of other plants from the Moluccas, and eastern isles. Pepper is the chief article of cultivation; the quantity raised in 1804 was calculated at two millions of pounds.

This island came into our possession by purchase from the King of Queddah, and being taken possession of on the 12th of August, 1786, received its present name in compliment to the illustrious personage on whose birth-day this accession to the British dominions was made.

The principal establishment is *George Town*, bounded on the north and east by the sea; on the south by an inlet of the sea,
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improperly called the Prangin river; and on the west by the high road. The streets, which cross each other at right angles, are spacious and airy, and are now properly raised and drained. The markets are well supplied with excellent fish, poultry of all kinds, pork, grain of every description, and a great variety of fine vegetables and fruits. Beef and veal are not of a good quality; sheep are imported from Bengal and the coast; goat mutton can be procured from the Malay peninsula and Sumatra; when of a proper age the meat is very good. On the north-east angle of the Point stands the fort, which having been originally extremely ill built, is now falling to pieces. Large sums of money have been thrown away upon it, without its ever being finished. It is not only incapable of defence from its size and construction, but from its situation: two or three seventy-four-gun ships could anchor within pistol-shot, and from their tops drive away the men from their guns. The harbour is formed by the narrow strait which divides the north side of the island from the Queddah shore. It is very capacious, and everywhere affords good anchorage for the largest ships. There is also an excellent inner harbour, formed by the eastern end of this island, and the island Jerajah, where ships may receive every kind of repair that can be performed without going into dock. It is even thought that docks could be constructed here, capable of receiving any frigate, if not large enough for line-of-battle ships.

The appearance of many places in the interior of the island, and the number of tombs which have been discovered, give countenance to the tradition that it was once inhabited by nearly three thousand people, who chiefly subsisted by piracy, and were expelled by a king of Queddah. When it was taken possession of by the Bengal government, it was only a shelter for a few miserable fishermen. Its present inhabitants are composed of British, Dutch, Portuguese, Armenians, Arabs, Parsees, Chinese, Chooliahs, Malays, Buggeffes, Burmahs, Siamise, Javanese, and other nations. There is not, probably, any part of the world, where, in so small a space, so many different people are assembled, or so great a variety of languages spoken.

CEDED DISTRICT. To the beneficial possession of this island, the acquisition of the land on the north side of the strait, on the continent, seemed not merely desirable, but in some respects indispensably requisite; and in June 1800, after much negotiation, a district, eighteen miles in length, and three in breadth, was ceded by the King of Queddah, to the Company in perpetuity, for which, and the sovereignty of the island, an annual sum of 10,000 dollars was to be paid.

CEYLON.

CEYLON. This valuable island, so long the property of the Dutch, fell into the power of Great Britain during the wars of the French Revolution, and was confirmed to this country by the treaty of Amiens in 1802.

It is situated at the western entrance of the Bay of Bengal, between $5^{\circ} 40'$ and $10^{\circ} 30'$ N., and 79° and 82° E. On the north-west it is separated from the Coromandel coast by the Gulf of Manaar, and is distant about 160 miles from Cape Comorin. From Point Pedro, at the northern extremity, to Dondrahead in the southern, the extreme length is about 300 miles. The breadth is very unequal, being in some parts only from forty to fifty miles, while, in others, it extends to sixty, seventy, and one hundred. Toward the southern part it is much broader than in the northern, and nearly resembles a ham in shape. The interior of the island abounds with steep and lofty mountains, covered with thick forests, and full of almost impenetrable jungles, which completely surround the dominions of the king of Candy. The most lofty range divides the island nearly into two parts, and so completely separates them from each other, that both climate and season differ on the respective sides. Although Ceylon lies so near to the equator, the heat is not so oppressive as on many parts of the Coromandel coast; but this temperature is chiefly confined to the sea-coast, where the sea-breezes have room to circulate.

The principal harbours in the island for large ships are Trincomale and Point de Galle; they also come to anchor, and at certain seasons of the year moor securely in the roads of Columbo. The inferior ports, which afford shelter to smaller vessels, are Batacolo, Barbareen, Matura, and Caltura, on the south-east; and on the north-west coast are Negumbo, Chilou, Calpenteen, Manaar, and Point Pedro.

The rivers are seldom navigable to any considerable distance inland; the two principal are, the *Malivagonga* and the *Mulivaddy*. Beside the rivers, there are many lakes and canals communicating with them, particularly in the neighbourhood of Columbo and Nigumbo. The great divisions of the island are reduced to two; the one comprehending those parts under the dominion of Europeans, and the other the central country remaining to the natives.

The soil of Ceylon is, in general, sandy, with only a small mixture of clay. In the south-west parts, particularly about Columbo, there is a great deal of marshy land, very rich and productive. This tract is chiefly occupied with cinnamon plantations: and the island, altogether, does not produce rice sufficient for the inhabitants, who are yearly supplied from Bengal and other parts.

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The seeds of all European plants degenerate rapidly in this climate, and yield but an indifferent produce. Ceylon possesses a great variety of animals, at the head of which must be placed the elephant. The superiority of the Ceylon elephants does not consist in their size, for they are in general not so tall as those of the continent, but in their hardiness and strength, and in their great docility and freedom from vice and passion. The natives affirm, that the elephants of all other parts of the world make a salem (obeisance) before their's, thus instinctively acknowledging their superiority.

The domestic animals are oxen and buffaloes, horses being imported from the small islands in the Jaffnapatam district. Among the wild animals are deer, elks, gazelles, hares, wild hogs, and a small species of tiger. The larger kind, called the royal tiger, is not an inhabitant of Ceylon; but there are tiger-cats, and leopards. There are no foxes; but jackals, hyænas and bears are numerous, beside an infinite variety of the monkey tribe.

All the European domestic poultry are natives of Ceylon, as are also pheasants, parrots, and parroquets, both wild and tame. Snipes, floricans, storks, cranes, herons, water fowl of all descriptions, pigeons, wild and domesticated, and a few partridges of the red-legged kind. Among the variety of birds is the honey-bird, which points out where the bees have deposited their combs. Crows here, as in every other part of India, are exceedingly impudent and abundant. There are also taylor-birds, two species of fly-catchers, and peacocks, wild and tame; also the common fowl in a wild state.

The reptiles of Ceylon are exceedingly numerous; serpents in particular abound, and are a great annoyance to the inhabitants. *Couva capellas*, or hooded snakes, *couva manillas*, whip and grass snakes, are all poisonous; the last three are of a very small size. Water and wood snakes are harmless. The rock snake is an immense animal, extending thirty feet in length; but, though formidable from their size, they are perfectly free from poison. Alligators, of a prodigious size, infest the rivers of Ceylon, and have been killed twenty feet long, and as thick as the body of a horse. There are guanas, toads, lizards, blood-suckers, cameleons, and leeches; as also flying lizards, and every species of tropical insect. Fish are found in great abundance in the lakes and rivers, as well as in the surrounding seas.

Ceylon is very prolific in plants. Among the fruits are apples, oranges, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, water-melons, pumpkins, melons, squashes, figs, almonds, mulberries, bilberries, mangoes, shaddocks, mangusteens, rose-apples, cushoo-apples,

apples and nuts, custard-apples, plaintains, jack-fruit (a species of the bread-fruit), cocoa-nuts, and several sorts of pepper, cardamoms, coffee, and sugar-tree (a species of palm). The tea-plant has also been discovered a native in the forests of the island. Of trees, Ceylon contains the banyan, cotton-tree, nando-wood, fatin-wood, calamander-wood, and ebony.

As the food of the natives consists chiefly of rice, so their greatest labour is employed in its cultivation. They usually sow in July and August, and reap in February. When proper advantage is taken of the monsoon, they may have two crops per annum.

The principal cinnamon woods, or gardens, lie in the neighbourhood of Columbo. The grand garden, near the town, occupies a tract from ten to fifteen miles in length, stretching along from the east to the south of the district.

The minerals of Ceylon are numerous, and precious stones are particularly abundant, but not of a fine quality. The ruby, the topaz, and the diamond of Ceylon are very inferior to those of Golconda, or of the Brazils. Beside these, there are amethysts, tourmalins (destitute of electric qualities), blue and green sapphires, white and black chrystal, the cat's-eye, a species of opal, and cornelians. Lead, tin, and iron ore are found in the interior, but they are never wrought or applied to any purpose. There were formerly several mines of quicksilver: in 1797, a small one was discovered at Cotta, six miles from Columbo, from which six pounds were procured at a most seasonable period for the garrison. This mine has never since been worked with much activity, as the produce could not reimburse the expenditure.

The Ceylonese, within the British dominion, are governed by their own native magistrates, under the control of the administration. All the possessions are divided into corles and districts, the subordinate superintendence of which is given to the moodeliers, or native magistrates, who are chosen from among the class of nobles, styled Hondrews and Mahondrews. The moodeliers assist in collecting the revenue, settling the proportion of taxes and contributions, superintending the peasants, furnishing provisions for the garrisons, and observing generally the conduct of the natives. In some districts there is a police corps to assist in enforcing the orders of government. Beside the native Cingalese, who live under the dominion of the Europeans, the sea-coasts are inhabited by Dutch, Portuguese, Malays, and settlers from the different Indian nations.

On the final cession of this island in 1802, it was constituted a royal government, immediately under the direction of the Crown, which appoints the officers, and regulates the internal

ternal management. The council is composed of the Governor, Chief Justice, the Commander of the forces, and the Secretary. The revenues of all sorts amount to about 230,000*l.* per annum, which sum comprehends 60,000*l.* paid by the East India Company for cinnamon, and 40,000*l.* the average produce of the fisheries.

Columbo. This town, the capital of Ceylon, and seat of government, is situated on the south-west part of the island. The fort is placed on a peninsula projecting into the sea, and is upwards of a mile in circumference, and strong both by nature and art. The plan of the city is regular, it being nearly divided into four quarters by two principal streets, which cross each other; the smaller ones run parallel, with connecting lanes. The harbour, which lies on the west side, is nothing more than an open road, affording good and safe anchorage for ships for only four months, from December to April. Columbo, for its size, is one of the most populous places in India, being estimated to contain above 50,000 inhabitants, who are a mixture of almost every race of Asiatics. The language most generally spoken, both by Europeans and Asiatics, is the Portuguese of India, a base corrupt dialect, differing much from that spoken in Europe.

Trincomale. This town occupies more ground than Columbo, and is naturally strong; but it contains fewer houses, and is much inferior in population and appearance. The circumference within the walls is about three miles, including a hill or rising point immediately over the sea, and covered with thick jungle. The fort is strong, and commands the principal bays, and in particular the entrance to the grand harbour, or inner bay, which affords security to shipping in all seasons and weathers, being sufficiently deep and capacious, and landlocked on all sides. It is overlooked by Fort Ostenburgh, erected on a cliff which projects into the sea. This fortress is of considerable strength, and was originally built by the Portuguese from the ruins of some celebrated pagodas which then occupied the spot. The harbour of Trincomale is one of our most valuable acquisitions in India; when the violent monsoon commences, all vessels on the coast of Coromandel and east side of the bay of Bengal are obliged to put to sea, and then Trincomale is their only refuge. A vessel from Madras can arrive here in two days; and the harbour is to be made at any season. The surrounding country is mountainous and woody, and not so fertile as to attract settlers, the climate being considered one of the hottest and most unhealthy of the island.

There have been but few European settlers, the society being composed almost exclusively of military officers. The lower
classes

classes are chiefly Hindoos from the opposite coast, and a few gold and silver smiths, who are native Ceylonefe. By the exertions of Admiral Drury, a colony of Chinese has been established, who cultivate a large garden, which promises in time to repay their industry. The Admiral also imported cattle and poultry, which he distributed among the natives, to secure, if possible, a supply for the fleet. Timber is plenty, and of easy access; and there are many coves where ships may be hove down with the greatest safety at all seasons; but the rise of the tides is not sufficient for docks.

AFRICA.

THE possessions in Africa which belong to Great Britain are, 1st. The islands which are under the government, or contributory to the interests of the East India Company; 2d. The settlement at the Cape of Good Hope; 3d. That at Sierra Leone; and, 4th. The small islands of Senegal and Goree.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

THE ISLE OF FRANCE. The island now known by this name was discovered by the Portuguese in 1505. In 1598 the Dutch Admiral Van Neck landed, and changed its name, after that of the Prince of Orange, to Mauritius. The Dutch are supposed to have settled the island about the year 1644. In 1657 the wreck of the French settlers at Madagascar sought refuge in the Isle of Bourbon. The Dutch having become masters of the Cape of Good Hope in 1712, abandoned the Mauritius, which was soon after occupied by the French settlers at Bourbon, who changed its name to the Isle of France.

In 1735, M. de la Bourdonnau became governor of the two islands; and to his zeal, talents, and exertions, may be attributed the great progress which was made in their cultivation and improvement. He imported from the Brazils the Manioc*, a most nutritious and wholesome food, upon which the negroes chiefly subsist; introduced the sugar cane; formed plantations of cotton and indigo; and established iron works. In 1738 he built a ship of 500 tons, the first ever launched at Port Louis.

* The Manioc is a root as large as a man's arm; when grated, it is made into cakes; three pounds of it are given to each negro for his daily food,

He made roads, constructed bridges, magazines, hospitals, arsenals, batteries, fortifications, barracks, mills, quays, offices, and shops, and made canals and aqueducts. He upheld the glory of the French arms with dignity and effect; and having devoted a life of great activity to the service of his country, fell a victim to faction, and expired in the Bastile.

In December 1810, this island, with its dependencies, surrendered to the British arms, and was ceded in perpetuity, by the treaty of Paris, concluded in May 1814. It has been always considered as possessing extraordinary means of defence, and is capable of being placed in a perfect state of security.

The population may be estimated at 91,000 persons, 17,000 of whom are white, 4,000 free persons of colour, and 70,000 blacks. The soil is of a reddish colour, mixed with ferruginous matter, and, though apparently dry, is very fertile; and its cultivation does not require extraordinary labour. There are about sixty rivers of various sizes, and several lakes, in the island. Port Louis, the seat of government, contains about 6,000 houses, chiefly built of wood, and generally highly ornamented. The inhabitants are remarkable for politeness and hospitality. Many of them are of the ancient noblesse of France, who, being weary of the scenes exhibited in their native country, have found an asylum here, where disease is hardly known, where the sky is clear, and the climate uncommonly wholesome and temperate, rendered still more agreeable by the salubrity and softness of the air, and the fine scenery on all sides.

Among the trees which compose the groves and forests of this island, may be mentioned the cinnamon, pepper, fig, ebony, cocoa, almond, lemon, nutmeg, bamboo, latanier, mangalier, palm, pine, fir, and oak, and also a species of timber called *Fouraha*, admirably adapted to all the purposes of ship-building.

All the tropical fruits grow here, and many European, as apples, pears, cherries, strawberries, apricots, mulberries, and olives. Of the grains, wheat flourishes, and its flour is preferable to that of Europe for long voyages: maize, rice, and tobacco are cultivated with advantage.

The exportable commercial productions are sugar, cotton, coffee, indigo, nutmegs, cloves, ambergris, and iron.

BOURBON. This island is about twenty leagues long, and sixteen broad. It was first discovered by the Portuguese, who called it *Mascareique*, or *Mascarenhas*; other Europeans called it *Saint Appollonion*; till, in the year 1654, Mr. Flancour, governor of the French settlements in Madagascar, took possession of it, and called it *Bourbon*. There are many good roads for shipping round the island, particularly on the north

and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where the ships can ride secure against the hurricanes in the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with sunk rocks, that entrance into the harbours is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, continually burning and roaring. The climate, though intensely hot, is healthy, being refreshed by cooling morning and evening gales: sometimes there are terrible hurricanes. No island can be more happily watered: every side is refreshed by rivulets, springs, and brooks. It abounds in fruit, grass, and cattle: produces excellent tobacco, aloes, white (but no black) pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit trees spontaneously: it even yields ship-timber; and many trees afford odoriferous gums and resins; among the rest, benzoin, of an excellent kind. The rivers are well stocked with fish; the coast with land and sea tortoises; every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are gathered on the shore, and the woods are filled with game. The population is reckoned at 16,400 white persons, 3,496 free persons of colour, and 70,450 negro labourers. The cultivated land is reckoned at 90,000, the uncultivated at 210,000 acres.

ST. HELENA. This island, rendered peculiarly interesting by a recent political event, is situated in that part of the southern Atlantic, which has been otherwise denominated the Ethiopic Ocean, about a thousand miles to the southward of the equinoctial line, and nearly at the same distance from the western shore of Africa. Its remote appearance, when first discovered by those who approach it, is that of a blue mountain, ragged and depressed at the extremities, and rising very high toward the middle parts, which are less distinctly discerned through the exhalations that rest upon them. From its great elevation, and the purity of the surrounding atmosphere, it is seen at the distance of seventy or eighty miles. Approaching nearer, the land grows more ragged and uneven, and seems only an irregular heap of broken rocks and hills, which, rising abrupt and perpendicular from the water's edge, spire up to a great height, and form, in several places, stupendous overhanging cliffs; they are divided from each other by very narrow valleys, or rather by deep irregular chasms. Nothing in nature can be imagined more barren and dismal, than the aspect of these hills and their declivities, as viewed from the sea. They are black, ragged, and mouldering, without any tree, shrub, or trace of verdure; and the wild inhospitable air of the whole island, makes the remoteness and solitude of its situation appear still more forlorn and wretched.

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The hills which border on the sea, generally project a little way beyond the stony beaches of the intermediate valleys; so that the whole coast describes an irregular indented line, which measures twenty-eight miles in circumference. The greatest length of the island is ten miles, and its greatest breadth between six and seven. The hills, nearest the sea, are from eight to twelve and fourteen hundred feet in height. Those inland rise much higher; and Diana's Peak, the most elevated part of the ridge which runs from south-west to north-east, is two thousand six hundred and ninety-two feet above the level of the ocean. From the base of this central ridge, which rises into several peaks and lofty summits, with very steep and abrupt declivities, and resembles an elevated ground intersecting the country, the surrounding hills slope and descend toward the sea. The narrow valleys, too, which diverge all round, begin here; and the small brooks that water them take their rise in these heights, which, when approached, are found altogether unlike the hills on the coast, for they are covered with the finest verdure. All persons who have written on the subject of St. Helena, agree in believing that it has been cast up from the bosom of the ocean by the force of fire; and, among other circumstances which justify this opinion, it is observed to abound in volcanic substances. It was first discovered by the Portuguese, who stocked it with hogs, goats, and poultry, and used to touch at it for provisions, water, and refreshments, in their return from their India voyages. Beside quadrupeds, the Portuguese brought fowls, partridges, and pheasants, which now run about the mountains in prodigious numbers; and planted a variety of fruit trees, as lemons, oranges, and pomegranates; all which, from the excellency of the climate, have increased so as to make many people imagine they were indigenous. But whether they planted a colony in it or not, certain it is, that it was totally abandoned when the Dutch took possession; and that not a Portuguese was found on the island, when, in the year 1600, the English became its masters. After the English had once acquired St. Helena, they maintained it without disturbance till 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise; but it was speedily retaken by the brave Captain Munden, with three Dutch East Indiamen in the harbour. It is difficult to imagine that this island could be taken except by surprise; for it is aptly compared to a castle in the middle of the ocean, whose natural walls are too high to be scaled. There is no beach, except at Chapel Valley Bay, and that is fortified with a strong battery of fifty large cannon, planted even with the water, and further defended by the perpetual dashing of prodigious waves against the shore, which, without farther resistance, make the landing difficult;

difficult ; and a little creek, where two or three men might land from a small boat, is rendered inaccessible by a battery. As there is no other anchorage but at Chapel Valley, touching here is extremely precarious ; for, the wind always setting from the south-east, if a ship once overshoots, it is a matter of great difficulty again to recover the harbour. Although St. Helena is believed to have been at one time a woody country, it is now remarkably bare ; but the culture of trees is strongly recommended, and encouragement to experiments is afforded by a long enumeration of indigenous and exotic plants which grow and thrive there. The coast is frequented by seventy-six species of fish, including the whale, the shark, and the turtle.

James Town is considered as the capital ; but every family has its house and plantation on the higher part of the island, where they look after their cattle, hogs, goats, and poultry, fruit and kitchen gardens, without scarcely ever descending to the town in Chapel Valley, unless it be once a week to church, or when the shipping arrives ; at which times almost every house in the valley is converted into a punch-house, or lodging for their guests, to whom they sell their hogs, poultry, and fruits, receiving in exchange flour, wine, and whatever necessaries they want ; but they must first come into the Company's warehouse. The merchandise usually laid in by the Company, are Cape wines, brandy, European or Canary wines, Batavia arrack, beer, malt, sugar, tea, coffee, China ware, Japan cabinets, calicoes, chintzes, muslins, ribbands, woollen cloths and stuffs, and a miscellaneous variety. The governor resides in a fort, with a garrison ; and centinels are always placed on the highest part of the island, to give notice of the approach of any vessels. The European inhabitants are estimated at 1,846, the natives at 2,970. Blacks, or rather persons of different shades of colour, who discover in the variety of their complexions and features a strange and motley mixture of races, are employed in cultivating the country, in fishing, and in the capacity of household servants. These people, who are either descended from the negroes brought by the first European settlers, or who have been since imported from the West Indies, Guinea, Madagascar, or the Cape of Good Hope, were, till within a few years, in a state of slavery. But the practice has been long restrained in its exercise, and mitigated in its effects, by humane and salutary regulations ; and has lately, to the honour of the Directors of the East India Company, been wholly abolished. This act was the more naturally to be expected from the East India Company, as this was the only part of their widely extended territories where the practice of slavery was ever tolerated. Several regulations were at the same time enacted, to render the situation of people of colour more easy and comfortable,
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by which they seem to have been encouraged to marry and propagate; and it is a fact, that before these regulations were established, there was an annual loss of about ten in a hundred; but since the blacks have been placed under the immediate protection of the magistracy, and all further importation prohibited, they have increased.

The preceding particulars have been extracted from works published before the detention of Napoleon Bonaparte; it may be proper to add, that since that event, two acts of parliament have passed, 56 Geo. 3. chaps. 22 and 23, for more effectually detaining him in custody, and for regulating the intercourse with the island. By the first, ample powers are given to those who shall be appointed by warrant from the Crown, to detain him securely; and all persons, subjects of Great Britain, rescuing him, or aiding and assisting him in his escape from the island, or in any attempt at his rescue or escape, whether upon parol or without; and all persons who shall assist him in quitting any other place, without the bounds of the island, or assist him on the high seas after his escape, are declared felons, without benefit of clergy, and are to be detained and sent to England for trial, whether the offences were committed within or without His Majesty's dominions. By the latter statute all persons, during the time of Bonaparte's detention, are forbidden to trade, go, sail, or repair to the island, without the license of His Majesty, signed by one of the secretaries of state, or without the license, consent, and permission of the governor, or, in his absence, of the deputy governor of the island, or of the commander for the time being of His Majesty's naval or military forces stationed off or at the said island, on pain of an information to be exhibited against the offender in the Court of King's Bench, for a high crime and misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment, and to be tried in the county of Middlesex. There are also regulations to prevent improper persons from remaining ashore after notice, and to prevent ships from hovering off the island; but the statute contains a saving of the rights of the East India Company.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Mr. BARROW, whose account of this settlement has been principally relied on, begins with the observation, that by the capture of the Cape of Good Hope and of Ceylon, the British language is now heard at the southern extremities of the four great continents or quarters of the globe. Three of these have submitted to the power of its arms; and the spirit

of commerce and adventurous industry has directed the attention of its enterprising subjects to the fourth, on the small island of Staaten, at the extreme point of South America, where a kind of settlement has been formed for carrying on the southern whale fishery. Of these extreme points, the Cape of Good Hope cannot be considered as the least important, either with regard to its geographical situation, so favourable to a speedy intercourse with every part of the civilised world; to its intrinsic value, in the supply of articles of general consumption; or as a port where the fleets of the East India Company may refresh; assemble in time of war for convoy; re-establish the health of their sickly troops; or season, in the mild temperature of southern Africa, their recruits from Europe. In the early voyages of the British to India, the Cape was always the general rendezvous and place of refreshment; and it was then considered of such importance, that formal possession was taken in 1620, in the name of King James, thirty years before the settlement of the Dutch.

No further notice seems to have been taken by the British government of this possession at that time; nor does it appear that any kind of interference or contravention was made by it when the Dutch sent out Van Riebeck to form a settlement in 1650. Till this period, the English, the Portuguese, and the Hollanders, had indiscriminately refreshed their crews at the Cape; the Portuguese formed no establishment nearer than the banks of Rio Infante, nearly six hundred miles from the Cape; and this they soon abandoned for want of shelter for their shipping, which they afterwards found, farther to the eastward, in the Bay De la Goa, still in their possession. It remained under the dominion of the United States 180 years, and then yielded to the arms of Britain. The extension of the settlement was for a time impeded by the wild beasts of various kinds that swarmed in every part of the country. In the private journal of the founder of the colony it is noticed, that lions and leopards, wolves and hyenas, committed nightly depredations, under the very walls of the fort. The native Hottentots seem to have given them little interruption: the predominant passion of this weak and peaceable people for spirituous liquors, was their bane; a bottle of brandy was a passport through every horde. With this and tobacco, iron, and a few paltry trinkets, the Dutch purchased a portion of land and cattle, and took the rest by force. A cask of brandy was the price of a whole district; and nine inches in length of an iron hoop the purchase of a fat ox. Deprived, by their passion for intoxicating liquors and baubles, of the only means of existence, the numbers of the natives rapidly declined; and the encroachments

ments of the settlers were in proportion to the diminution of the obstacles. Government granted lands, on yearly leases, at the small fixed rent of twenty-four rixdollars, (not five pounds sterling,) in any part of the country. A law was also passed, that the nearest distance from house to house was to be three miles; so that each farm consisted of more than five thousand acres of land, and consequently was rented at the rate of something less than a farthing an acre. From a scarcity of water, it frequently happened that many farms were at twice that distance from each other. No land was granted in property, except in the vicinity of the Cape. As the Dutch advanced, the natives retired; and those that remained with their herds among the new settlers, were soon reduced to the necessity of becoming their servants. No permanent limits to the colony were ever fixed under the Dutch government; the pastoral life adopted by the peasantry of the remote districts, scattered them over a great extent of country; the imbecility and easy temper of the adjacent tribes of natives favoured avaricious views; and the government was either unwilling, or thought itself unable, to restrain them.

From a chart executed by order of Lord Macartney, it appears that the extent and dimensions of the territory composing the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

Length from west to east.			
Cape Point to Kaffer Land	-	-	580 miles.
River Koussie to Zuureberg	-	-	520
Breadth from south to north.			
River Koussie to Cape Point	-	-	315
Nieuwveldt Mountains to Plettenberg's Bay	-	-	160
Mouth of the Tush-river to Plettenberg's Baaken	-	-	225

which gives a parallelogram whose mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233 English miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 square miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants; so that each individual might possess eight and a half square miles of land. A great portion, however, of this territory may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even for pasture. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with chrySTALLISED sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains, that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with four grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony. These chains of mountains, and

the interjacent plains are extended generally in the direction of east and west, except indeed that particular range which, beginning at False Bay, opposite to the Cape Point, stretches to the northward along the western coast, as far as the mouth of Olifant's river, which is about 210 miles.

The first great chain of mountains that runs east and west, incloses, between it and the southern coast, an irregular belt of land from twenty to sixty miles in width, indented by several bays, covered with a deep and fertile soil, intersected by numerous streamlets, well clothed with grass and small arboreous or frutescent plants, well wooded in many parts with forest trees, supplied with frequent rains, and enjoying, on account of its proximity to the sea, a more mild and equable temperature than the more remote and interior parts of the colony.

The next great chain is the Zevarte Berg, or Black Mountains. This is considerably more lofty and rugged than the first, and consists, in many instances, of double, and sometimes treble ranges. The belt inclosed between it and the first chain is about the mean width of that between the first and the sea; of a surface much varied, composed in some parts of barren hills, in others of naked arid plains of clay, known to the natives, and also to the colonists, by the name of *Karoo*; and in others of choice patches of well-watered and fertile grounds. The general surface of this belt has a considerable elevation above that of the first; the temperature is less uniform; and, from the nature of the soil, as well as the difficulty of access over the mountains, which are passable only in few places, this district is much less valuable than the other.

The third range of mountains is the Nieuwveldt's Gebergte, which, with the second, grasps the great uninhabited *Karoo*. This desert, making the third step or terrace of southern Africa, is greatly elevated above the second: it is nearly 300 miles in length from east to west, and eighty in breadth; desert, barren, and useless.

The country likewise ascends from the western coast toward the interior in successive terraces, of which the most elevated, called the Roggeveld, falls in with the chain of mountains called the Nieuwveldt. The whole tract to the northward of the Cape is much more sandy, barren, and thinly inhabited than to the eastward, in which direction it increases in beauty and fertility with the distance.

Such is the general outline of the territory comprehended under the name of the Cape of Good Hope. It is divided into four districts, over each of which is placed a civil magistrate, called a *Landroft*, who, with six *Hemraaden*, or a council of country burghers, is vested with powers to regulate the police
of

of his district, superintend the affairs of government, adjust litigations, and determine petty causes. Their decisions, however, are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in Cape Town. The four districts are; that of the Cape, of Stellenbosch and Drakensteen, of Zwellendam, and of Graaf Reynet; and they were successively colonised in the order here mentioned.

The Cape district is chiefly composed of that mountainous peninsula whose southern extremity was first called by Portuguese navigators *Cabo dos Tormentos*, or Cape of Storms, and afterwards the *Cape of Good Hope*. The Table Mountain, flanked by the Devil's Hill on the east, and the Lion's Head on the west, forms the northern extremity of the same peninsula. The length from north to south is about thirty-six, and breadth eight miles. It is composed, properly speaking, of one mountain, broken, indeed, into several masses, more or less connected by inferior gorges. Some of these masses have horizontal summits, others peaked, or cone-shaped; some consist of naked fragments of rock, others are clothed with verdure. This peninsula is connected with the continent by a low flat isthmus, with few irregularities of surface, except such as are made by ridges of sand, that seem to have been adventitiously brought by the strong south-east winds from the shores of False Bay, a large arm of the sea inclosed between the Cape promontory and a chain of high mountains on the continent, to the eastward of it.

False Bay and Table Bay, the one washing the southern, and the other the northern shore of the isthmus, are the usual places of resort for shipping. During the summer season, when the south-east winds are predominant, which may be reckoned in general from September till May, Table Bay affords the most secure shelter; and Simon's Bay, a cove or indent on the western shore of False Bay, for the rest of the year, when the northerly and north-westerly winds are strongest. In neither of them is there any sort of security or convenience for heaving down and repairing shipping, nor do they appear to admit of any contrivance for such purposes at a moderate expense.

There are also two small bays on the west side of the peninsula; one called *Hout*, or Wood Bay, and the other Chapman's Bay. The latter is exposed to the west and north-west, but the former is sheltered from all winds. The confined anchorage, which is said to admit of, at the utmost, ten ships only, and the eddy winds from the surrounding high mountains, which make it difficult for ships to enter and get out, are the objections that have been stated against the use of Hout Bay.

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All these bays, the passes of the mountains, and indeed all parts of the peninsula, are capable of being maintained, if properly garrisoned, against any attack that can probably be made. Most of the works, batteries, and lines have undergone a complete repair, with many improvements, and others have been judiciously added by the British engineers. The pass at the foot of Muiſenberg, a steep high mountain, washed by False Bay, and the only road of communication between Simon's Bay and the Cape, may be considered as impregnable, though the Dutch suffered themselves very easily to be driven out of it. It is the Thermopylæ of the Cape; and, from the several breast-works lately constructed along the heights, a chosen band of three hundred riflemen might stop the progress of an army.

Cape Town, the capital, and indeed the only assemblage of houses that deserves the name of a town, is pleasantly situated at the head of Table Bay, on a sloping plain that rises with an easy ascent to the feet of the Devil's Hill, the Table Mountain, and the Lion's Head; the last stretching to the northward in a long unbroken hill of moderate height, is King James's Mount, (the Lion's Rump of the Dutch,) and affords shelter against the westerly winds to ships in Table Bay. It commands every part of the town and the castle to the north-east of it; and this, with the Amsterdam and Chavonne batteries, commands the anchorage in the bay. The town, consisting of about eleven hundred houses, built with regularity, and kept in neat order, is disposed into straight and parallel streets, intersecting each other at right angles. Many of the streets are open and airy, with canals of water running through them, walled in and planted on each side with oaks; others are narrow and ill-paved. Three or four squares give an openness to the town. In one is held the public market; another is the common resort of the peasantry with their waggons, from the remote districts of the colony; and a third, near the shore of the bay, and between the town and the castle, serves as a parade for the troops. This is an open, airy, and extensive plain, perfectly level, composed of a bed of firm clay covered with small hard gravel. It is surrounded by canals or ditches, that receive the waters of the town, and convey them into the bay. Two of its sides are completely built up with large handsome houses. The barrack, originally intended for an hospital, for corn magazines, and wine-cellars, is a large, well-designed, regular building, which, with its two wings, occupies part of one of the sides of the great square; the upper part is made to contain 4,000 men. The castle affords barracks for 1,000 men, and lodgings for all the officers of one regiment; magazines for artillery, stores,

and ammunition, and most of the public offices of government, are within its walls. The other public buildings are a Calvinist and a Lutheran church; a guard-house, in which the burgher senate, or the council of burghers, meet for transacting business relative to the interior police of the town; a large building, in which the government slaves, to the number of 330, are lodged; the court of justice, where civil and criminal causes are tried.

The Lombard Bank is within the walls of the castle, as is also the *Weeskammer*, or the chamber for administering the affairs of orphans. The population of the town is estimated at about 6,000 whites, inclusive of the military, and twelve thousand slaves.

Such was the state of this colony in 1801. At the peace of Amiens in 1802, it was restored to the Dutch; a measure which was severely animadverted upon in both Houses of Parliament. The answers to these complaints appeared at the time satisfactory; but the ensuing war, begun in 1803, having again placed this settlement in the hands of Great Britain, it was not thought proper again to restore it; but it was permanently ceded by the treaty of Paris.

Among the foreign productions that might be introduced, and in all probability cultivated with success at the Cape of Good Hope, may be reckoned the different varieties of the cotton plant. Many of these have been already tried, and found to succeed in the light sandy soil. Two species of indigo grow wild in several places; and the cultivated plant of India is on trial. Different species of the cactus, the plant on which the cochineal insect feeds, grow as well as on the opposite continent. The tea-plant has long been in the country, but totally neglected. It is a hardy shrub, which, when once planted, is not easily eradicated; and the soil, the climate, and general face of the country, bear a strong analogy to those provinces of China to which it is indigenous. A small coffee-plant, brought from the island of Bourbon, thrives remarkably well; the sugar-cane equally so; flax will give two crops in the year; and hemp, called by the Hottentots *dacha*, is produced in great quantities; not, however, for the purpose of being manufactured into cordage or cloth, but merely for the sake of the leaflets, flowers, and young seeds, which are used by the slaves and Hottentots as a succedaneum for tobacco. The dwarf mulberry grows as well as in China; but the common silkworm is not in the colony. Several species of wild moths, however, spin their cocoons among the shrubby plants of Africa. Among these is one species nearly as large as the *atlas*, and answers to the description of the *paphia* of Fabricius, which
feeds

feeds upon the *protea argentia*, the witteboom, or silver-tree of the Dutch, and might probably be turned to account by cultivation. Dr. Roxburgh is of opinion, that it is precisely the same insect which spins the strong silk known in India by the name of tussach. The *palma christi*, from the seed of which is expressed the castor-oil, and the aloe, whose juice produces the well-known drug of that name, are natives of the country, and are met with in abundance, as is also the Cape olive, so like in habit and appearance to the cultivated plant of Europe, that there can be little doubt as to the success of the latter; it is the more astonishing that this tree has not been introduced, since no vegetable oil, fit for culinary uses, has yet been discovered in the colony. For this purpose the *sesamum* would prove a useful grain. In most of the sandy flats are found two varieties of the *myrica cerifera*, or wax-plant, from the berries of which is procurable, by simple boiling, a firm pure wax; and the honey-bee is everywhere wild on the heathy sides of the hills; but the culture of the plant and of the insect have hitherto been neglected.

Timber for building is scarce and expensive, yet little pains have yet been taken to rear it near the town. Avenues of oak-trees, plantations of the white poplar, and of the stone-pine, are to be seen near most of the country houses, and have been found to thrive rapidly; but the timber they produce is generally shaken and unsound. The larch, it is supposed, would be useful and ornamental, and thrive well.

The native plant most cultivated in the vicinity of the town, is the silver-tree, of which whole woods stretch along the base of the Table Mountain, planted solely for fuel. The *conocarpa*, another species of *protea*, the kreupel boom of the Dutch, is also planted along the sides of the hills; its bark is employed in tanning, and the branches for fire-wood. The *grandisflora*, *speciosa*, and *mellifera*, different species of the same genus, grow everywhere in wild luxuriance, and are collected for fuel, as are also the larger kinds of *ericas* or heaths, *phyllicas*, *brunias*, *polygalas*, the *olea capensis*, *euclea racemosa*, *sophora*, and many other arboreous plants, that grow in great abundance both on the hills of the peninsula, and on the sandy isthmus that connects it with the continent. Fuel is so scarce, that a small cart-load of these plants sells in the town for, from five to seven dollars, or twenty to eight-and-twenty shillings. In most families, a slave is kept expressly for collecting fire-wood: he goes out in the morning, ascends the steep mountains, where waggons cannot approach, and returns at night with two small bundles of faggots, the produce of six or eight hours' hard labour, swinging at the ends of a bamboo carried across

across the shoulder: some families have two and even three slaves employed in this manner; and serious apprehensions have been entertained of a total deficiency of this necessary article. Under this idea, researches and experiments have been made, and with appearances of success, for the discovery of coal.

Most of the European, and several of the tropical fruits, are introduced, and cultivated with success. In every month the table may be supplied with at least ten different sorts of fruit, green and dry. Oranges of two kinds, the common China and the small mandarin, figs, grapes, and guavas, are all very good; peaches and apricots not bad, and very cheap. Apples, pears, pomegranates, quinces, medlars, plums, and cherries thrive well, and bear plentifully, but are not very good. Gooseberries and currants are said to have been tried, but without success. The nectarine has not been introduced. Raspberries are good, but scarce; and strawberries are brought to market every month of the year. There are no filberts, nor common hazel-nuts; but almonds, walnuts, and chestnuts, all of good quality, are plentiful; as are also mulberries of a large size and excellent flavour.

The market is likewise tolerably supplied with most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms that lie scattered along the eastern side of the peninsula, in number about forty or fifty. On some of these farms are vineyards also of considerable extent, producing, besides the supply of the market with green and ripe grapes and prepared raisins, about seven hundred leaguers or pipes of wine a-year, each containing 154 gallons. Of these from fifty to a hundred consist of a sweet luscious wine, well known in England by the name of Constantia, the produce of two farms lying close under the mountains, about midway between the two bays. The grape is the muscatel; and the rich quality of the wine is in part owing to the situation and soil, and partly to the care taken in the manufacture. No fruit but such as is full ripe, no stalks are suffered to go under the press; precautions seldom taken by the other farmers of the Cape.

The vineyards, gardens, and fruiteries, are divided into small squares, and enclosed by cut hedges of oaks, quince trees, or myrtles, to break off the south-east winds of summer, which, from their strength and dryness, are found to injure vegetation; but the grain is raised on open grounds. The produce of this article on the peninsula is confined chiefly to barley, which, in this country, is preferred to oats, for feeding horses. None of the common flat-eared barley has yet been introduced; but that hexangular kind only is known, which in some parts of England is called *beer*, and in others *big*. Corn is generally cultivated
beyond

beyond the isthmus, and along the western coast, within the great north and south chain of mountains. The remote districts beyond these furnish a supply of horses, sheep, and horned cattle.

The natural productions of the Cape peninsula, in the vegetable kingdom, are perhaps more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the world. Of these, by the indefatigable labours of Mr. Masson, His Majesty's botanic garden at Kew exhibits a choice collection; but many are still wanting to complete it. Few countries can boast of so great a variety of the bulbous-rooted plants as Southern Africa. In the month of September, at the close of the rainy season, the plains at the feet of the Table Mountain, and on the west shore of Table Bay, called now the Green Point, exhibit a beautiful appearance. The frutescent, or shrubby plants, that grow in wild luxuriance, some on the hills, others in the deep chasms of the mountains, and others on the sandy isthmus, furnish an endless variety.

The peninsula of the Cape affords but a narrow field for the enquiries of the zoologist. The wooded kloofs, or clefts in the mountains, still give shelter to the few remaining troops of wolves and hyenas, that not many years ago were very troublesome to the town. Horses are not indigenous; but were first introduced from Java, and since from different parts of the world. The grizzled and the black Spaniard from South America, where the breed runs wild, are most esteemed for beauty, gentleness, and service. Heavy waggoners are chiefly drawn by oxen, which are for the most part indigenous. The larger kinds of birds that hover round the summit of the Table Mountain are vultures, eagles, kites, and crows, that assist the wolves in cleansing the country near the town, of a nuisance that is tacitly permitted by the police. Ducks, teals, and snipes, are met with in winter about the pools and periodical lakes on the isthmus. Turtle-doves, a thrush called the sprew, and the fiscal bird, the *lanius collaris*, frequent the gardens near the town. The market is constantly supplied with a variety of sea-fish, caught in the bay, and everywhere along the coast. During the winter, whales are very plentiful in all the bays of Southern Africa, and give to the fishermen a much easier opportunity of taking them than in the open sea. They are smaller, and less valuable than those of the same kind in the northern seas, but sufficiently so to have engaged the attention of a company established for carrying on a fishery in Table Bay. Seals were once plentiful on the rocky islands of False Bay, as is still that curious animal the penguin, forming the link of connection between the feathered and the finny tribe.

Insects

Insects of almost every description abound in the summer months, and particularly a species of locust, which infects the gardens, devouring, if not kept under, every green thing that comes in its way. Musquitoes, sand-flies, lizards, and land-turtle abound; scorpions, scolopendras, and large black spiders, are among the noxious insects; and almost all the snakes of the country are venomous.

Among the most stupendous natural appearances in this place, or indeed in any other, is the eminence called the Table Mountain. The name of *Table Land* is given by seamen to every hill or mountain whose summit presents to the eye a line parallel to the horizon. The north front of the Table Mountain, directly facing the town, is a horizontal line, or very nearly so, of about two miles in length. The bold face, that rises almost at right angles to meet this line, is supported, as it were, by a number of projecting buttresses, that rise out of the plain, and fall in with the front a little higher than midway from the base. These, and the division of the front by two great chasms, into three parts, a curtain flanked by two bastions, the first retiring, the other projecting, give it the appearance of the ruined walls of some gigantic fortrefs. These walls rise above the level of Table Bay to the height of 3582 feet. The east side, which runs off at right angles to the front, is still bolder, and has one point higher by several feet. The west side along the sea shore, is rent into deep chasms, and worn away into a number of pointed masses. In advancing to the southward about four miles, the mountain descends in steps or terraces, the lowest of which communicates by gorges with the chain that extends the whole length of the peninsula. The two wings of the front, one the Devil's Mountain, and the other the Lion's Head, make in fact, with the Table, but one Mountain. The depredations of time and the force of torrents having carried away the looser and less compact parts, have disunited their summits; but they are still joined at a very considerable elevation above the common base. The height of the first is 3315, and of the latter 2160 feet. The Devil's Mountain is broken into irregular points; but the upper part of the Lion's Head is a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned like a work of art, and resembling very much, from some points of view, the dome of Saint Paul's, placed upon a high cone-shaped hill.

To those whom mere curiosity, or the more laudable desire of acquiring information, may tempt to make a visit to the summit of the Table Mountain, the best and readiest access will be found directly up the face next to the town. The ascent lies through a deep chasm that divides the curtain from the

the left bastion. The length of this ravine is about three-fourths of a mile; the perpendicular cheeks at the foot more than a thousand feet high, and the angle of ascent about forty-five degrees. The entrance into this ravine is grand and awful. The two sides, distant at the lower part about eighty yards from each other, converge within a few feet at the portal, which opens upon the summit, forming two lines of natural perspective. On passing this portal, a plain of very considerable extent spreads out, exhibiting a dreary waste and an insipid tameness, after quitting the bold and romantic scenery of the chasm. Here the adventurer may perhaps feel strongly disposed to ask himself if such be all the gratification he is to receive for having undergone so great a fatigue in the ascent. The mind, however, will soon be relieved, at the recollection of the great command given by the elevation; and the eye, leaving the immediate scenery, will wander with delight round the whole circumference of the horizon. On approaching the verge of the mountain, all the objects on the plain below are dwindled away, to the eye of the spectator, into littleness and insignificance. The flat-roofed houses of Cape Town, disposed into formal clumps, appear like those paper fabrics which children are accustomed to make with cards. The shrubbery on the sandy isthmus looks like dots; and the farms and their inclosures, as so many lines; and the more finished parts, of a plan drawn on paper. On the swampy parts of the flat summit, between the masses of rock, are growing several sorts of handsome shrubs. The *cenæa mucronata*, a tall, elegant, frutescent plant, is peculiar to this situation; as is also that species of heath called the *physodes*, which, with its clusters of white flowers, glazed with a glutinous coating, exhibits in the sunshine a very beautiful appearance. Many other heaths, common also on the plains, thrive on this elevated situation as well as in a milder temperature. The air on the summit, in the clear weather of winter, and in the shade, is generally about fifteen degrees of Fahrenheit's scale lower than in Cape Town. In the summer the difference is much greater, when that well-known appearance of the fleecy cloud, not inaptly called the *tablecloth*, envelopes the summit of the mountain.

Both the boors and Dutch Africans are sluggish, indolent, and inactive, extremely ignorant, and indisposed to acquire knowledge, or avail themselves, by art and industry, of the local and other advantages they possess. Of all the various classes of original settlers, the French refugees are considered as the best.

The Hottentots are a poor, dejected, harmless race, deficient in intellect, and almost devoid of memory. They are, for the
most

most part, a wandering people, living in huts, and appear to have no particular leader, or any settled notions or habits. Their principal food consists of fruits or roots : they seldom eat animal food. It is believed that the race is rapidly decreasing.

Another class of natives inhabit the colony, denominated Bosgesmen, or Men of the Bushes, so extremely savage and ferocious, that they are deemed incapable of civilization. They are a diminutive race, not exceeding four feet high, go entirely naked, and live in the woods, carrying bows and arrows, which are said to be poisoned. Their numbers are unknown.

A third race, denominated Kaffres, is in every respect unlike either the Hottentots or the Bosgesmen. They are a tall, robust people, bordering on black : the height of the men not unfrequently six feet ten inches. They are warlike, and have some sort of government, under a leader or king. They are in a state of absolute hostility to every description of Europeans, whom they consider as intruders. Several treaties have been made between the Kaffres and the Dutch, and at length the boundary of the Kaffre land has been fixed by the great Fish River, which is guarded by a military force, and a line of posts from Algoa to the utmost extent of the colony, a distance of six to seven hundred English miles.

That this country will, in time, become a very considerable mart for the sale of British goods, is not to be doubted. Its productions will also prove, more than they actually are, a source of wealth, and a means of commerce to Great Britain. Already five different kinds of wine are in progress of cultivation, namely, *Cape Madeira*, *Stein*, *Port*, *Pontac*, and *Constantia*. The first three being dry wines, will, when improved to the fullest extent, be the most valuable as articles of consumption and exportation. The production and perfection of brandies must follow that of wine ; raisins and figs may be cultivated to any extent ; and every species of dried fruit obtained from France, Spain, Italy, and the islands and countries in the Mediterranean, may be exported from the colony of the Cape in the greatest abundance. Cotton, coffee, and tobacco could be cultivated with great advantage. There are also abundant facilities for establishing a southern whale fishery, a trade in hides and skins, in elephants' teeth, and the skin and flesh of the hippopotamus. Hemp is indigenous, and, with flax, might be cultivated to great advantage. There are also ostriches, of which the feathers are valuable, and a great variety of medicinal herbs, and other natural productions.

SIERRA LEONE.

Sierra Leone, situated in Upper Guinea, is so called because it is mountainous, and the mountains abound in lions: it is composed of several states or kingdoms, and is well watered by a river of the same name, at the mouth of which an association of English gentlemen have established a settlement, on land purchased of the prince of the country.

As part of the view in obtaining this possession was to facilitate the abolition of the trade in slaves, it would have been necessary to offer some details, and make some observations on this traffic; but it is now, with respect to Great Britain and her colonies, entirely abolished by act of parliament; and in the late treaties of peace and negotiations every endeavour has been used to procure a similar resolution from every other maritime power in Europe. The statute alluded to is 47 Geo. III. sess. 1. c. 36; and it not only enacts the abolition of the trade, but provides, in terms of great strictness, for the prevention of all subterfuges or contrivances, by which the intent of the law might be evaded.

The immediate cause of forming this settlement arose out of the circumstances attending the American war. Great numbers of the negroes, whom the war had delivered from slavery on the continent of America, were swarming in the streets of London, unemployed, and consequently a nuisance. A society of benevolent gentlemen formed themselves into a committee for their relief, and suggested to government the propriety of establishing them on the coast of Africa, the native country of themselves or their ancestors. Transports were accordingly appointed to carry them to Sierra Leone, where it was proposed to settle them, as a free and independent colony, and to give them a stock of provisions, arms, and plantation tools, to begin the world with. Of 700 negroes who offered themselves, only 411 sailed from Plymouth; the rest having deserted, been discharged for mutinous behaviour, or died on board the transports by intemperance and confinement. Along with the negroes were shipped about 60 white people, most of whom were women of abandoned character. In May, 1787, they arrived at their destined port; and Captain Thompson, the commander of the ship of war which convoyed them, made a purchase of land from the king of the country, for their settlement. But those negroes, perhaps originally not very fond of labour, had acquired such a habit of dissipation in their military service, which was rendered still more inveterate by their begging life in London, that not even their own pre-

servation could induce them to work for themselves upon the construction of houses and the cultivation of ground, which were declared to be their own property. In 1788 Mr. Granville Sharp chartered a vessel to carry out fifty negroes, and supplied them with provisions, tools, arms, and a sum of money to buy live stock upon the coast. His benevolence was disappointed, partly by the worthlessness of some of the objects of it, eleven of whom deserted before the ship sailed, and partly by the cruel avarice of the master of the vessel. But, before they arrived at Sierra Leone, the colony was almost entirely deserted; and even the few white people settled in it had migrated to the slave factories.

In 1791, by act of parliament, were incorporated for thirty-one years, Granville Sharp, Esquire, Samuel Whitbread, Esquire, and a number of other benevolent gentlemen, who believed that the trade in slaves was an insuperable obstacle to the civilization and cultivation of Africa; and that if these objects were duly attended to and encouraged, Africa might soon become an inexhaustible source of raw materials, a vast market for British manufactures, and the theatre of a most extensive trade, founded upon the solid and permanent principles of reciprocal advantage. This society, under the name of the Sierra Leone Company, was invested with the usual powers, privileges and obligations of a joint stock company; and the members were upon no account to deal in slaves, or to keep any person in slavery. The king was empowered to give the Company a grant of the peninsula of Sierra Leone, or a power to purchase lands from the proprietors of that part of the coast of Africa. The boundaries are, the river Sierra Leone on the north; the river Bunsh on the east (but its course is from east to west according to the maps); the river Camaranca on the south; and the ocean on the west. The tract included within these boundaries cannot, however, with any degree of propriety be called a peninsula. In 1792 the principal population of this colony consisted of 1,131 free negroes, who had been settled in Nova Scotia at the conclusion of the last war; but, finding the climate unsuitable to their constitutions, had petitioned for other settlements; and they were accordingly conveyed, in sixteen vessels, at the expense of government, to Sierra Leone, where they arrived in March, 1792. These, added to the black people already carried from London, formed a village, which got the name of *Free-town*; and by the constitution of the colony the white and the black inhabitants were entitled to enjoy equal rights and privileges.

In 1794, the settlement gave hopes that it might become flourishing. Free-town contained two hundred houses, some of them tolerably good, disposed in regular streets; the ground

was cleared for several miles from the town, and cultivated; and consequently the colony was rendered more healthy. Order and industry were established. The fame of the colony, and of their determination not to deal in slaves, was spread throughout the continent. The king of Foulah, the sovereign of some millions of people, and of a plentiful country, had sent an embassy to Sierra Leone; and, in return, two gentlemen in the Company's service had penetrated to Teembo, his capital, situated a considerable way up the country, where they were well received. These favourable prospects were suddenly reversed: a French fleet, consisting of one ship of fifty guns and a number of privateers, two of which carried thirty-two guns each, fitted out by the slave-merchants of Bourdeaux and L'Orient, instigated and assisted by two slaving captains, whose crimes had made them fly from England and America, arrived in the harbour (September 28th), took all the vessels belonging to the Company, destroyed the public buildings, and plundered all the property on shore. After doing all the mischief they could at Sierra Leone, they sailed along the coast, and plundered some of the British slave factories. The French Government had promised that Sierra Leone should be exempted from the ravages of the war: but it might be expected that a settlement, established for the express purpose of annihilating the slave trade, could not escape the pointed vengeance of slave-merchants, as soon as the laws, or customs of war, should put the power of conducting hostile enterprises into private hands. From this disaster, however, they seem speedily to have recovered; but the undertaking, on the whole, has not contributed materially to the extension of trade, the advance of national prosperity, or the civilization of Africa. The settlement is now stated to contain 28 white and 1899 persons of colour, and to have 1500 acres of land cultivated for provisions only.

Bulam. It should not be omitted, that the Sierra Leone Company were not the only association formed for the purpose of introducing cultivation and fair commerce among the natives of Africa. About the end of the year 1791 a number of gentlemen formed themselves into a society (without any act of incorporation, or any protection from Government) for establishing a colony on *Bulama*, a fertile island, at the mouth of the Rio Grandé, and near to some other great navigable rivers, or, failing that, upon some other island or district on the coast of Africa, for the purpose of cultivating the tropical productions by the hired labour of the free natives of the adjacent country. Above two hundred intended settlers sailed in three vessels; and, after an unfortunate skirmish with the natives, owing to the want of an interpreter, wherein some lives were

were lost, they purchased the island and a part of the adjacent main land, which they set about clearing and planting : but, by a combination of misfortunes, the colony dwindled away, and, in the end of the year 1793, Mr. Beaver, a lieutenant in the navy, after having, with great spirit and unremitting perseverance, kept together the small desponding remains of the colony till then, and having baffled the repeated attempts of a treacherous neighbouring prince to surprise him, was obliged to abandon the fruits of his labours. Such was the event of an attempt to establish a colony, which certainly possessed many of the advantages, and was exempted from many of the disadvantages, usually attending such undertakings.

SENEGAL, GOREE, &c.

SENEGAL. This island, situated in the river so called, is about one mile and a quarter in length, from north to south, and almost half a mile in breadth, from east to west. It is composed of a bed of loose sand, productive of nothing but what is forced by art and the richest manure. It is of value solely for the purposes of trade. The population is said to consist of 600 white and 3400 persons of colour.

GOREE. This is a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Africa, about two miles in circumference, within a cannon shot of the shore. Notwithstanding its situation, the air is said to be cool and temperate all the year round, and the inhabitants refreshed by alternate breezes from the land and sea. Beside the multitude of surrounding rocks, that render it almost inaccessible, except at two particular bays, it has a fort with works, which renders it a place of great strength. Springs have been discovered, the gardens have been planted with excellent fruit-trees, all kinds of vegetables have been raised in great abundance, and from a small, barren, and despicable island, it is made one of the safest and pleasantest settlements in Africa. It is inhabited by 50 white and 3000 people of colour.

AMERICA.

THE separation of the United States of North America from Great Britain, effected by arms, confirmed by treaty, and established by time, renders it unnecessary, in this work, to trace the rise and progress of those provinces. The account therefore to be given of the British empire in this quarter of

the world will arrange itself under the following heads:—
 1st. Possessions on the continent of North America, with the islands immediately annexed: 2d. The settlement at Honduras in the gulf of Mexico: 3d. The West Indies, beginning with the Bahamas, proceeding to Jamaica, the Virgin Islands, the Leeward and Windward Charibbee Islands, down to Trinidad: and, 4th. Possessions on the continent of South America, with the dependent isles.

CONTINENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

Under the general name of British America, is comprehended the vast extent of country, bounded south by the United States of America and the Atlantic Ocean; east by the same ocean and Davis's Straights, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of Hudson's Bay Charter; and westward indefinitely: lying between $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 70° north latitude; and between 50° and 96° west longitude from Greenwich.

British America is divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which are annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson Bay and the island of Cape Breton; 3. New Brunswick; 4. Nova Scotia, to which is annexed the island of St. John. Beside these, there is the island of Newfoundland.

CANADA The province of Canada, otherwise called Quebec, after having been long in the possession of the French, was wrested from them by Great Britain in 1759, and finally ceded to the conquerors by the definitive treaty in 1763. It is bounded on the north by Hudson's Bay, East Main, and Labrador; on the east by Labrador, the bay of St. Lawrence, and New Brunswick; on the south by the United States; and on the west by Lake Winnipeg and parts of America hitherto imperfectly described. It is computed to extend from the gulf of St. Lawrence and isle of Anticosti in the east, to the Lake of Winnipeg in the west, 33 degrees, or about 2000 geographical miles: the breadth from the Lake of Erie in the south may extend at least to N. lat. 49° , comprehending 6 degrees, or 360 geographical miles. Others make its extent much more considerable toward the north, and estimate it at 500 miles. Its mean breadth is not above 200.

UPPER CANADA. The old province of Quebec was divided into two provinces, distinguished by the names of Upper and Lower Canada, by an act of parliament passed in the 31st year of His Majesty's reign. The line of division commences
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at a stone boundary on the north bank of Lake St. Francis, at the Cove west of *Point au Bodét*, in the limit between the township of Lancaster, and the seignory of New Longueil; running in the direction of north thirty-four degrees west, to the westernmost angle of the said seignory of New Longueil; then along the north-western boundary of the seignory of Vaudreuil, running north twenty-five degrees east, until it strikes the Ottawas river. It ascends that river, into the Lake Tomiscanning, and from the head of the said lake, proceeds by a line drawn due north, until it strikes the boundary line of Hudson's Bay; including all the territory to the westward and southward of the said line, to the utmost extent of the country distinguished by the name of Canada. The province of Upper Canada is bounded to the eastward by the United States of America; that is, by a line from the forty-fifth degree of north latitude along the middle of the river Iroquois, or Cataragui, into Lake Ontario: through the middle of this likewise, until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of the communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of that lake, until it arrives at the water communication between it and Lake Huron; thence again through the middle of Lake Huron, to the water communication between it and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior northward, to the isles Royale and Philipeaux, to the Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods; thence through that lake to the most north-western point thereof, and from thence in a due west line to the river Mississippi. To the westward, and to the northward, west of the Mississippi, its boundaries are indefinite, the northern limits of Louisiana not being thoroughly known. To the northward it is bounded by Hudson's Bay, as settled by the treaty of Utrecht, in the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, extending west indefinitely. The province is divided into eight districts. 1. The eastern, embracing the counties of Glengary, Stormont, Dundas, Prescott, and Russell. 2. District of Johnstown, embracing the counties of Grenville, Leeds, and Carleton. 3. The midland district, embracing the counties of Frontenac, the incorporated counties of Lenox and Addington, Hastings, and Prince Edward; with all that tract of country which lies between the district of Johnstown, and a line drawn north sixteen degrees west from the north-west angle of the township of Rawdon, until it intersects the northern limits of the province; together with all the islands in the Ottawas river, wholly or in greater part opposite thereto. 4. The district of Newcastle, embracing the counties of Northumberland and Durham, with all the land behind them,

confined within their extreme boundaries, produced north sixteen degrees west, until they intersect the northern limits of the province. 5. The home district, comprehending the counties of York and Limcoe. 6. The district of Niagara, embracing the counties of Lincoln and Haldimand, with such of the islands lying in the river Niagara or Lake Erie as are wholly or in greater part adjacent thereto; together with the beach at the head of Lake Ontario, between the outlet of Burlington Bay and the township of Saltfleet, together with the promontory between Burlington Bay and Coote's Paradise. 7. The district of London; comprehending the counties of Norfolk, Oxford, and Middlesex, with so much of the province as lies to the westward of the home district, and the district of Niagara, to the southward of Lake Huron, and between them and a line drawn due north, from a fixed boundary (where the easternmost limit of the township of Oxford intersects the river Thames), till it arrives at Lake Huron. 8. The western district; comprehending the counties of Essex and Kent, together with so much of the province as is not included within any other district thereof. These districts are divided into twenty-three counties; namely, Glengary, Stormont, Prescott, Russell, Dundas, Grenville, Leeds, Carleton, Frontenac, incorporated counties of Lenox and Addington, Hastings, Prince Edward, Northumberland, Durham, York (consisting of two ridings), Haldimand, Norfolk, Oxford, Middlesex, Kent, and Essex.

The principal towns are Kingston, York, and Niagara. *Kingston* is neat, and tolerably well built, at the head of the river Saint Lawrence, on the north shore. It occupies the site of Old Fort Frontenac; it was laid out in the year 1784, and has a barrack, an hospital, church, and several respectable houses, a gaol, and a court-house. A cove near the town affords a good harbour for shipping. Large vessels seldom go below Kingston, though the river is navigable seventy or eighty miles further: the reason is, that the channel is too narrow to admit of return with a tolerably fair wind. *York*, the seat of government, is situated within an excellent harbour of the same name, made by a long peninsula, which embraces a basin of water sufficiently large to contain a considerable fleet. Vessels may ride safely at its entrance during the winter. On the extremity of the peninsula, which is called Gibraltar Point, are erected commodious block-houses and stores, commanding the entrance to the harbour. On the main land, opposite the point, is the garrison, situated on another point, made by the harbour and a small rivulet, which, being improved by sluices, affords an easy access for boats to go up to the stores. The barracks
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being built on a knoll, are well situated for health, and command a delightful prospect of the lake to the west, and the harbour to the east. The Government House has a striking appearance. There are public buildings, where the Legislative Council, House of Assembly, and Courts of Law sit. The gaol is a tolerable building, and in a healthy situation. The town is not large, but well furnished with every necessary convenience; and the market is well supplied. The streets are tolerably uniform, and exhibit a handsome prospect from the lake. *Niagara*, formerly called Newark, stands at the north-east angle of the county of Lincoln, nearly opposite to the fort of that name, at the entrance of Niagara river; the western point, which forms the mouth of the river, is called Mississague point. It is a handsome town, of about a mile square, and its streets at right angles. Here is a gaol and court-house, originally built for the home district; and near to it, on the heights above Navy Hall, is Fort George, where there are quarters for nearly a regiment of soldiers. The first parliament of Upper Canada met here, but since York has been made the seat of government, of course the legislative council and assembly meet there.

LOWER CANADA. This, which is the more wealthy and populous of the two divisions, lies on both sides the river St. Lawrence. In this division are contained Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivières.

QUEBEC. This city, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, which is partly of marble and partly of slate. At the time when the city was founded, in 1608, the tide, it is said, reached the foot of the rock; but since that time the river has sunk so far, that a large spot of ground is left dry, and on this a large suburb, styled the *Lower Town*, is built. It stands at the foot of a rocky precipice, about forty-eight feet high. The houses in the lower town, (as also those in the upper,) are of stone, strong and well built, and chiefly inhabited by merchants, being conveniently near their business. The fortifications are extensive, but irregular. The natural situation of the town renders its defence easy. If attacked by ships in the river, their guns cannot injure the works in the upper town, though the ships themselves would be liable to great injury from the cannon and bombs of these elevated ramparts. The lower town is defended by a platform flanked with two bastions, which at high water and spring tides are almost level with the surface. A little above the bastion, to the right, is a half bastion, cut
out

out of the rock ; a little higher, a large battery ; and higher still, a square fort, the most regular of all the fortifications, and in which the governor resides. The passages which form a communication between these works are extremely rugged. The rock which separates the upper from the lower town, extends, with a bold and steep front a considerable distance westward, along the river St. Lawrence. The lower town is well supplied with water, which is sometimes scarce in the upper town.

MONTREAL. This city, the second in Lower Canada, stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, and has its name from a high mountain about the middle of it, which it seems to overlook like a monarch from his throne ; hence the French call it *Montreal*, or *Royal Mountain*. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island had become a delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the convenience of life. The city, around which is a very good wall built in the time of Louis XIV., forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets, and, when taken by the British, the houses were built in a very handsome manner, and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the south side of the river, as the hill on the side on which the town stands declines gradually toward the water. Montreal contains about 600 houses, few of them elegant, and, since 1760, it has suffered much from fire. The river St. Lawrence is about three miles wide at Montreal. There is an island near the middle of the river opposite the city, at the lower end of which is a mill with eight pair of stones, all kept in motion at the same time by one wheel. The works are said to have cost 11,000*l.* sterling. A large mound of stone, built out into the river, stops a sufficiency of water to keep the mill in continual motion ; and, what is very curious, at the end of this mound or dam vessels pass against the stream while the mill is in motion. Perhaps there is not another mill of the kind in the world.

TROIS RIVIERES. This town was settled by the French in 1610, and is so called from the junction of three waters a little below the town, where they fall into the river St. Lawrence. The town stands on the northern bank of the St. Lawrence, at that part of the river called Lake St. Pierre. It is but thinly inhabited, but commodiously placed for the fur trade, and was formerly the seat of the French government, and the grand mart to which the natives resorted. It is pleasantly situated in
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a fertile country, about 50 miles south-west of Quebec. The inhabitants are mostly rich, and have elegant well-furnished houses, and the country round wears a fine appearance.

WATERS. The principal rivers in Canada are the St. Lawrence, Utawas, Montreal, Despaires, Detroit, Saguenay, Holland, Matchedash, Niagara; and there are many others. The lakes are of prodigious magnitude, resembling inland seas. Among them may be remembered lakes Champlain, Superior and Inferior, Ontario, Erie, and Simcoe. These are but a few out of innumerable names, as a great number of rivers fall into every one of the lakes. The magnitude of these sheets of water may be conceived when it is stated that Lake Superior is 1500 miles in circumference; that Champlain covers 500,000 acres; and that of Lake Ontario 2,390,000 acres are within the United States, beside as large a portion in the British territory. Each of the lakes has a great many islands, some of which are inhabited, and, where necessary, fortified. They produce abundance of delicious fish, many species of which are unknown in Europe.

FALLS OF NIAGARA. Omitting particular descriptions of these waters, which from their sameness must be uninteresting, it is yet considered proper to extract an account of one of the greatest wonders of nature, the falls of Niagara. The river Niagara connects the north-east end of Lake Erie with Lake Ontario, is about thirty miles in length from Fort Erie to Niagara fort, and forms a part of the boundary between the United States and Upper Canada. It receives Chippeway, or Welland River, from the west, and Tonewanto Creek from the east, and embosoms Great and Navy islands. Fort Slusher stands on the east side near Navy Island. The *falls* are opposite Fort Slusher, about seven or eight miles south of Lake Ontario, and form the greatest curiosity which this, or indeed any other country, affords. In order to have a tolerable idea of this stupendous cataract, it will be necessary to conceive that part of the country in which Lake Erie is situated, to be elevated above that which contains Lake Ontario, about 300 feet; the slope which separates the upper from the lower country is generally very steep, and in many places almost perpendicular; it is formed by horizontal strata of stone, great part of which is limestone. The slope may be traced by the north side of lake Ontario, near the bay of Toronto, round the west end of the lake; thence the direction is generally east. Between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie it crosses the strait of Niagara and the Genessee River, after which it becomes lost in the country toward Seneca Lake. It is to this slope the country is indebted both for the cataract of Niagara and the great falls of Genessee. The cataract of
Niagara,

Niagara, some have supposed, was formerly at the northern side of the slope, near the landing, and that from the great length of time and the quantity of water, and distance which it falls, the solid stone is worn away for about seven miles up toward Lake Erie, and a chasm is formed which no person can approach without terror. Down this chasm the water rushes with a most astonishing noise and velocity after it makes the great pitch. The river is about 742 yards wide at the falls. The perpendicular pitch of this vast body of water produces a sound that is frequently heard at the distance of twenty miles, and in a clear day and fair wind, forty, and even fifty miles. A perceptible tremulous motion in the earth is felt for several rods round. A heavy cloud or fog is constantly ascending from the falls, in which rainbows may always be seen when the sun shines. This fog or spray, in the winter season, falls upon the neighbouring trees, where it congeals and produces a most beautiful crystalline appearance. It is conjectured that the water must fall at least sixty-five feet in the chasm: the perpendicular pitch at the cataract is 150 feet; other accounts say only 137 feet: to these add 58 feet which the water falls the last half-mile immediately above the falls, and we have 273 feet, which the water falls in the distance of seven miles and a half. Animals swimming near the rapids above the great cataract are instantly hurried to destruction. Just below the great pitch the water and foam may be seen puffed up in large spherical figures; they burst at the top, and project a column of the spray to a prodigious height, and then subside, and are succeeded by others which burst in like manner. This appearance is most remarkable about half way between the island that divides the falls and the west side of the strait, where the largest column of water descends. The descent into the chasm of this stupendous cataract is very difficult, on account of the great height of the banks; but when once a person has descended, he may go up to the foot of the falls, and take shelter behind the descending column of water, between that and the precipice, where there is a space sufficient to contain several people in perfect safety, and where conversation may be held without interruption from the noise, which is less here than at a considerable distance.

SOIL, CLIMATE, AND PRODUCTIONS. The eastern part of Lower Canada, between Quebec and the gulf of St. Lawrence, is mountainous; and a few scattered mountains also occur between Quebec and the mouth of the river Utawas; but higher up the river St. Lawrence the face of the country is flat. The soil consists principally of a loose dark-coloured earth, ten or twelve inches deep, lying on a bed of cold clay. This thin
mould,

mould, however, is very fertile, and yields plentiful crops, although it is worked every year. The manure chiefly used, since the practice of manuring has been introduced, is marle, which is found in great quantities in many places along the shores of the river St. Lawrence. The soil of Lower Canada is peculiarly adapted to the growth of small grain. Tobacco also thrives well in it; but the culture is neglected, except for private use; and more than half of what is used is imported. The snuff produced from the Canadian tobacco is held in great estimation. Culinary vegetables arrive at great perfection in Canada, which is also the case with most of the European fruits. The currants, gooseberries, and raspberries are very fine; the latter are indigenous, and are found very abundantly in the woods. A kind of vine is also indigenous, but the grapes produced by it in its uncultivated state are very poor and sour, and not much larger than fine currants. In the forest there is a great variety of trees; such as beech, oak, elm, ash, pine, sycamore, chestnut, and walnut; and the sugar maple-tree is found in almost every part of the country. Of this tree there are two kinds; the one called the swamp-maple, being generally found on low lands; and the other the mountain, or curled maple, from its growing upon high dry ground, and from the grain of its wood being beautifully variegated with little stripes and curls. The former yields more sap than the latter, but its sap affords less sugar.

The air of Lower Canada is very pure, and the climate uncommonly salubrious, except in the western parts of the province, high up the river St. Lawrence. From Montreal downwards the climate very much resembles that of the states of New England. This difference of salubrity in the two parts of the province is ascribed to the different aspects of the country; to the east, Lower Canada, like New England, is mountainous, but to the west it is an extended flat. The extremes of heat and cold are amazing; Fahrenheit's thermometer, in the months of July and August, rising to 96°, while in winter, the mercury generally freezes. The transitions from heat to cold are less sudden, and of course less injurious to the constitution, in Canada than in the United States, and the seasons are much more regular. The snow begins to fall in November; which is the most unpleasant, cold, and gloomy part of the year; but in December the clouds are generally dispersed, the frost sets in, and the sky assumes a bright hue, continuing for weeks without a single cloud. The greatest degree of cold occurs in January; and it is sometimes so intense, as to endanger a person who is exposed to it, being frost bitten; but the coldest days have intervals of warm weather. The winter is the season of
general

general amusement; and the Canadians transport themselves over the snow by means of their carioles and sledges, each of which holds two persons and a driver, and is usually drawn by one horse, with astonishing speed as well as great pleasure. In May the thaw comes on very suddenly, and, in its progress, the ice in the river St. Laurence bursts with the noise of a cannon, and passes toward the sea with a tremendous rapidity and violence. As soon as the winter terminates, the rapidity of vegetation is astonishing. Spring has scarcely appeared before it is succeeded by summer. In a few days the fields are clothed with the richest verdure, and the trees regain their foliage. The grain sown in May affords a rich harvest by the latter end of July.

GOVERNMENT. By the act of the 31st Geo. III. already mentioned, the executive power in each province was vested in the governor; and a legislative council, and an assembly, were appointed for each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, having power to make laws with the consent of the governor; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after the bills are received, in which case they become void. The legislative council of Lower Canada consists of fifteen members; that of Upper Canada of seven. They are summoned by the governor under the King's authority, and appointed for life, unless they forfeit their office by an absence of four years, or by swearing allegiance to any foreign power. The assembly of Lower Canada consists of fifty members, and that of Upper Canada of sixteen; and they are chosen by the freeholders in the towns and districts. The assembly is not to continue longer than four years, but it may be dissolved sooner; and the governor is bound to convene it at least once in each year. The governor, together with such of the executive council as shall be appointed by the king for the affairs of each province, are a court of civil jurisdiction for hearing and determining appeals; subject, however, to such appeals from their sentence as existed before the statute. All lands in Upper Canada are granted in free and common socage; and also in Lower Canada, when the grantee shall desire it, subject, nevertheless, to alterations by an act of the legislature; and the present system of judicature in each province was established by the Quebec bill of 1774. But whilst the French laws were suffered by the Quebec bill to exist, in order to conciliate the affections of the French inhabitants, who were attached to them, although the abolition of these laws would be favourable to the interests of civil liberty, the criminal law of England was happily established through every part of the country. The whole of British America, Canada included, is superintended

tended by an officer styled Governor-general of the four British provinces in North America, who, besides other powers which he possesses, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a Lieutenant-governor, who, in the absence of the Governor-general, is invested with all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

RELIGION. Every form of religion is completely tolerated in both provinces; but the Roman Catholic religion is that of a great majority of the inhabitants; and by the Quebec bill of 1774, ecclesiastics of that persuasion are legally empowered to recover all the dues, which, before that period, they were accustomed to receive, as well as tithes, from the Roman Catholic inhabitants; nevertheless, they cannot exact any dues or tithes from Protestants, or from lands held by Protestants; although such lands might formerly have been subjected to dues and tithes for the support of the Roman Catholic church. These dues and tithes are, however, still to be paid to persons appointed by the governor and reserved in the hands of His Majesty's receiver-general, for the support of the Protestant clergy actually residing in the province. By the act of 1791 it was also ordained, that the governor should allot out of all lands belonging to the crown, granted after that period, one-seventh for the benefit of the Protestant clergy, to be solely applicable to their use; and it is required that all such allotments should be particularly specified in every grant of waste lands; otherwise the grant is void. The governor, with the advice of the executive council, is authorized to constitute parsonages or rectories, and to endow them out of these appropriations, and to present incumbents to them, ordained according to the rites of the church of England. The clergy of this church, in both provinces, consist at present only of twelve persons, including the bishop of Quebec; whereas those of the church of Rome amount to 120, viz. a bishop, three vicars-general, and 116 curates and missionaries, all of whom are resident in the lower province, except five curates and missionaries. The number of the dissenting clergy, in both provinces, is considerably smaller than that of the clergy of the church of England.

POPULATION. Mr. Colquhoun estimates the population of these provinces at 300,000, exclusive, it is presumed, of the native Indians, who are perfectly free and independent. The French is still the general language, the English being confined to the British settlers.

COMMERCE. The imports into Canada consist of earthenware, hard-ware, and household furniture, various articles of woollen,

woollen, linen, and cotton haberdashery, hosiery, stationery, leather, and its manufactures, grocery, wines, spirits, West Indian produce, cordage of every description, and the coarse manufactures of iron. Some domestic manufactures of linen and of coarse woollen cloths are carried on in most parts of Canada ; but the greater part of these articles is supplied by Great Britain. The exports from Canada consist of wheat, flour, biscuit, timber, staves, and lumber of various kinds, dried fish, oil, ginseng, and various medicinal drugs, but principally of furs and peltries.

NEW BRITAIN. The country lying round Hudson's Bay, or the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, has obtained the general name of New Britain, and is attached to the Government of Lower Canada. About 1576, Frobisher discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coasts ; but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure ; the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that led into the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the Frozen Zone. His ardour for discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he stayed here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries ; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages ; but the ship, and the rest of the men returned home. Although the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated Hudson's Bay, yet, the project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to England. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent, and the trade is confided to a chartered company.

The principal rivers which water this country are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Moose rivers, all which empty into Hudson's and James's Bay, from the west and south. The mouths of all the rivers are filled with shoals, except Churchill's, in which the largest ships may lie ; but ten miles higher the channel is obstructed

structed by sand banks. All the rivers, as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from ten to sixty feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months. All the land is dreary, barren, and inhospitable.

A superintendant of trade, appointed by the Governor-general of the four British provinces, and responsible to him, resides at Labrador. The Company have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales Fort, Churchill River, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, on the west side of the bay. The residents are one hundred and forty-six.

Hudson's Bay is about 300 leagues wide from north to south. The eastern boundary of the bay is Terra de Labrador; the northern part has a straight coast, facing the bay, guarded with a line of isles innumerable. A vast bay, called the Archiwinnipy Sea, lies within it, and opens into Hudson's Bay, by means of Gulf Hazard, through which the Beluga whales pass in great numbers. The entrance of the bay from the Atlantic Ocean, after leaving to the north Cape Farewell, and Davis's Straits, is between Resolution Isles on the north, and Button's Isles on the Labrador coast, to the south, forming the eastern extremity of Hudson's Straits.

Hudson's Bay Company. This association was chartered in 1670: it has a governor, a deputy-governor, and a committee. Its trade is carried on by three ships: its exports amount to 16,000*l.*; which produce returns, chiefly in beaver skins and rich furs, to the value of 29,000*l.*; yielding to government a clear revenue of 3,734*l.* This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. The skins and furs procured by this trade, when manufactured, afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe to great advantage.

In 1782, two of the small settlements, called Fort Prince of Wales, and Fort York, were invaded by a French armament, consisting of one ship of 74 guns (the only ship of the line that ever was in Hudson's Bay) and two frigates of 36 guns each, with 250 soldiers, 40 artillery-men, cannons, and mortars, and commanded by M. de la Perouse, who was afterward lost in a voyage of discovery in the South Sea. Against so formidable an attack the Company's few servants had no defence, and consequently submitted at discretion. M. de la Perouse, according to his orders, demolished the forts, whereby the Company lost property to the amount, as is said, of 500,000*l.*; he then retired, having first humanely landed arms and provisions for the defence and support of some of the Company's servants, who had fled into the woods on his approach.

NEW BRUNSWICK. This settlement is bounded west by the district of Maine, from which it is separated by the river St. Croix, and a line drawn due north from its source to the Canada line; north by the southern boundary of the province of Lower Canada, until it touches the sea-shore at the western extremity of Chaleur Bay; then following the various windings of the sea-shore to the Bay of Verte, in the Straits of Northumberland; on the south-east it is divided from Nova Scotia by the several windings of the Missiquash river, from its confluence with Beau Basin (at the head of Chegnecto Channel) to its main source; and from thence by a due east line to the Bay of Verte. The northern shores of the Bay of Fundy constitute the remainder of the southern boundary. All islands included in the above limits belong to this province, which is about 260 miles long and 170 broad. The coast is indented with numerous bays and commodious harbours; the chief are Chaleur, Merrimichi, Verte, which last is separated from the Bay of Fundy by a narrow isthmus of about eighteen miles wide; Bay of Fundy, which extends fifty leagues into the country; Chegnecto Bay, at the head of the Bay of Fundy; Passamaquoddy Bay, bordering upon the district of Maine. At the entrance of this bay is an island granted to several gentlemen in Liverpool, who named it Campo Bello, and at a very considerable expence attempted to form a settlement, but failed. The chief rivers are St. John's, Merrimichi, Petit-codiac, Memramcook, Ristigouche, and Nipisiguit. There are numerous lakes, as yet without names. Grand Lake, near St. John's River, is thirty miles long, and eight or ten broad; and in some places forty fathoms deep.

The principal towns are St. John's, St. Anne's, which is the seat of government, and Frederick's Town. The population is estimated at 60,000. The productions are similar to those of Canada, with the advantage of an excellent and inexhaustible fishery; 410 vessels are employed in this trade, measuring 87,600 tons.

NOVA SCOTIA. This province is separated on the N. E. from Cape Breton Island, by the Gut of Canso; on the north it has a part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Straits of Northumberland, which divide it from the island of St. John; on the west it has New Brunswick and the Bay of Fundy; on the south and south-east the Atlantic Ocean. Its length is about 235 miles, from Cape Sable on the south-west, to Cape Canso on the north-east. Its extreme breadth is 88 miles; but between the head of Halifax harbour and the town of Windsor, at the head of the south-east arm of the basin of Minas, it is only about twenty-two miles broad. It contains 8,789,000 acres;

acres; of which three millions have been granted, and two millions are settled, and under improvement. Nova Scotia has many spacious harbours, bays, and coves of shelter; the chief are Canso, Halifax, or Chebucto Bay, Chedabucto, Frederick, George, Torbay, Charlotte, King's, Barrington, Townsend, St. Mary's, Annapolis Royal, the Basin of Minas, the Bay of Fundy; and a vast number of capes, lakes, and rivers. The most remarkable mountains are the high land of Aspotagoen, and the Ardois mountain. The southern shores present rather an unfavourable appearance, being in general broken and stony; but the innumerable islands along its coasts, coves, and harbours, though generally composed of rocky substances, appear designed by nature for the drying of fish, being covered with materials for fish flakes and stages; and there is land sufficient for pastures and gardens, to serve the purposes of fishermen. The back country wears a more promising appearance; and at Cornwallis, Windsor, Horton, Annapolis, Cumberland, Cobequid, Pictou, and along the northern shores of the province, there are extensive and well cultivated farms. The gradual improvement in husbandry, which has been encouraged by the laudable efforts and successful experiments of an agricultural society, afford good ground to expect that Nova Scotia may become a flourishing colony. The lands in general on the sea-coast, the county of Lunenburg excepted and a few hills of good land, are rocky, and interspersed with swamps and barrens. The growth in general is a mixture of spruce, hemlock, pine, fir, beech, and some rock maple, which furnish an inexhaustible supply for ship-building and other purposes. The coast abounds with fish of various kinds, as cod, salmon, mackerel, herring, alewives, trout, and other species; and being near to the banks of Newfoundland, Quero, and Sable Banks, fisheries, under proper management and regulations, might be carried on with certainty of success. There are mines of coal at Cumberland, and on the East River, which falls into Pictou harbour. There is plenty of bog and mountain ore in Annapolis township, on the borders of Nictau River, and a bloomery is erected there. Copper has been found at Cape D'Or, on the north side of the basin of Minas. The forts of this province are Fort Edward, Cumberland, and Cornwallis.

Nova Scotia is divided into eight counties; Hants, Halifax, King's, Annapolis, Cumberland, Sunbury, Queen's, and Lunenburg. These are subdivided into above forty townships.

HALIFAX. The town of Halifax, the capital of this province, was settled by a number of British subjects in 1749.

It is situated on a spacious and commodious bay or harbour, called Chebueto, of a bold and easy entrance, where a thousand of the largest ships might ride with convenience and safety. The town is built on the west side of the harbour, on the declivity of a commanding hill, whose summit is 236 feet perpendicular from the level of the sea. It is laid out into oblong squares; the streets parallel, and at right angles. The town and suburbs are about two miles in length, and the general width a quarter of a mile. At the northern extremity is the King's naval yard, completely built, and supplied with stores of every kind for the royal navy. The harbour is reckoned inferior to no place in British America, from its being open, and accessible at all seasons, when almost all others are sometimes locked up with ice; also from its entrance, situation, and proximity to the Bay of Fundy, and principal interior settlements. The population of Nova Scotia is estimated at 100,000 persons; 328 vessels are employed, bearing 42,222 tons.

CAPE BRETON. The island, or rather collection of islands, called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie so contiguous, that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the island of Cape Breton, lies between latitude $45^{\circ} 28''$ and 47° north, and between $59^{\circ} 44''$ and $61^{\circ} 29''$ west longitude, and about forty-five leagues to the eastward of Halifax. It is about 109 miles in length, and from 20 to 84 in breadth, and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gut of Canso*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is surrounded with little sharp pointed rocks, separated from each other by the waves, above which some of their tops are visible, and intersected with lakes and rivers. The great Bras D'Or is a very extensive sheet of water, which forms into arms and branches, and opens an easy communication with all parts of the island. All its harbours are open to the east, turning toward the south. On the other parts of the coast there are but a few anchoring places for small vessels, in creeks, or between islets. The harbour of St. Peter, at the west end of the island, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fishery. This island was considered as annexed to Nova Scotia, in respect to matters of government, till 1784; when it was erected into a separate government, by the name of Sydney. There is a great proportion of arable land on this island, and it abounds in timber and hard wood, such as pine, beech, birch, maple, spruce, and fir.

Cape Breton may be considered as the key to Canada; and the very valuable fishery in its neighbourhood depends for its prosecution on the protection of this island; as no nation can
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carry it on without some convenient harbour of strength to supply and protect it, and Louisburg is the principal one for these purposes. The peltry trade was ever a very inconsiderable object. It consisted only in the skins of a few lynxes, elks, musk rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of a red, silver, and grey colour. Some of these were procured from a colony of Micmac Indians, who had settled on the island with the French, and never could raise more than sixty men able to bear arms: the rest came from St. John's, on the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages are now derived from the coal-mines, which are situated near the entrance of the harbour, the working of which, and the fishery, are the chief employment of the inhabitants. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than six or eight feet below the surface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithstanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, these mines would probably have been forsaken, had not the ships which had been sent out to the French islands wanted ballast. In one of these mines, a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguished. The principal towns are Sydney, the capital, and Louisburg, which has the best harbour in the island. The inhabitants are 3,000.

SAINT JOHN'S. This territory, which is also called *Prince Edward's Island*, is situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coast of Nova Scotia, to which government it is annexed. It is 117 miles in length from north-east to south-west. The medium breadth is 20 miles; but between Richmond Bay on the north, and Halifax Bay on the south, it is not above three miles broad. The other bays on the north side are London harbour, Grand Rastied, and St. Peter's; those on the south side, Egmont, Halifax, and Hillsborough. On the east side, Three River harbour, and Murray harbour. It has several fine rivers, a rich soil, and is pleasantly situated. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, in 1745, the inhabitants quietly submitted to the British arms. While the French possessed this island, they improved it to so much advantage, as that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. When taken, it had 10,000 head of black cattle upon it, and several of the farmers raised 12,000 bushels of corn annually. Its rivers abound with salmon, trout, and eels; and the surrounding sea affords plenty of sturgeon, plaice, and most kinds of shell-fish. The island is divided into three counties, viz. King's, Queen's, and Prince's counties; which are subdivided into fourteen parishes, consisting of twenty-seven townships, which in all

make 1,363,400 acres, the contents of the island. This island is of the highest importance to the United Kingdom, whether considered with relation to the Americans, or as an acquisition of a great maritime power. Mr. Stewart has remarked, in his account of that island, that "the fishery carried on, from the American states, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, for some years past, is very extensive, and is known to be one of the greatest sources of the wealth of the eastern states, from which about 2000 schooners, of from 70 to 100 tons, are annually sent into the gulf; of these, about 1400 make their fish in the state of Belleisle, and on the Labrador shore, from whence what is intended for the European market is shipped off, without being sent to their own ports. About 600 American schooners make their fares on the north side of the island, and often make two trips in a season, returning with full cargoes to their own ports, where the fish are dried; the number of men employed in this fishery is estimated at between fifteen and twenty thousand, and the profits on it are known to be very great. To see such a source of wealth and naval power on our own coasts, and in our very harbours, abandoned to the Americans, is much to be regretted, and would be distressing, were it not that the means of re-occupying the whole, with such advantages as must soon preclude all competition, is afforded in the cultivation and settlement of Prince Edward's Island."

The capital is Charlotte Town, the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the island; besides which, there are George Town, Prince's Town, Hillsborough Town, Pownal Town, and Maryborough Town. The inhabitants are computed to be 5000.

NEWFOUNDLAND. The island thus denominated is on the east side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, separated from the coast of Labrador on the north by the Straits of Belleisle, which is about twenty-one miles wide. It is 381 miles long, and from 40 to 287 miles broad. The coasts are subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and fleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island are reaped no great advantages, for the cold is long continued and severe, and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; and the soil which has been explored, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by several rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This island is chiefly valuable for the great fishery of cod carried on upon those shoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. This fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchants, but a source of livelihood to many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the
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royal navy. This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but France and the United States of America have certain rights reserved to them in respect of fishing. Vessels lie in the bays and harbours of this island in perfect security, being well sheltered, except at the entrance, by the mountains. When a ship has taken her station, she is immediately unrigged, and a proper place selected for curing and keeping the fish, and huts erected for the men who work ashore: a large scaffold is also raised at the water's edge, where the number of shallops destined for the fishery is got ready, and also secured, after the season is over, till the following summer. Ships first entering any bay, have the privilege of applying these to their own use. The master who arrives first in the season in each of the numerous harbours, is for that year styled Lord of the Harbour; he also settles disputes among the fishermen. The great bank of Newfoundland, which may properly be deemed a vast mountain under water, is not less than 330 miles in length, and about seventy-five in breadth. The depth of water upon it varies from 15 to 60 fathoms, and the bottom is covered with a vast quantity of shells, and frequented by immense shoals of small fish, most of which serve as food to the cod, that are inconceivably numerous and voracious. It is a fact, in proof of the plenty of this fish, that although so many hundred vessels have been annually loaded with them, for two centuries past, yet the prodigious consumption has not yet lessened their plenty. The fowls called penguins are certain marks for the bank, and are never found off it; these are sometimes seen in flocks, but more usually in pairs.

The principal towns are Bonavista, Placentia, and St. John's; and there are two dependent isles, called St. Pierre and Miquelon. Newfoundland gives employment, annually, to 495 vessels, measuring 61,543 tons, navigated by 4950 seamen, beside 2000 fish shallops, measuring about 20,000 tons, which may employ, at the least, 6000 men more; taking 600,000 quintals of fish, which at fifteen shillings per quintal, together with salmon, cod oil, and seal oil, amount at least to 500,000/. The number of inhabitants is said to be 18,000.

THE BERMUDAS.

THE Bermudas received their name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who discovered them in 1527. They were not inhabited until 1609, when Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas

Gales were shipwrecked there, in their voyage to Virginia, and resided nine months. Having built a ship of the cedar, which abounded in these islands, they sailed from thence to Virginia. Sir George Somers was a second time driven on these islands, where he died. From him they received a second name, being frequently called the Somer Islands. The number of this cluster, in the form of a shepherd's crook, has been computed to be about 400. The islands are walled with rocks; and by reason of these, together with shoals, are difficult to approach. The entrances into the harbours and channels are narrow as well as shoaly, and are more dangerous by reason of the strong current which sets to the north-east from the Gulf of Florida. They contain from 12 to 13,000 acres of poor land, of which nine parts in ten are either uncultivated, or reserved in woods, which consist chiefly of cedar, for the supply of ship-building. There are about two hundred acres laid out in cotton. The main island is about sixteen miles long, and from one to two in breadth. The parish of St. George is an island to the eastward of the main land, in which stands the town of St. George, containing about 500 houses; near to that is St. David's island, which supplies the town with provisions. The air is healthy, and a continual spring prevails; the houses are built of a white soft stone, which is cut with a saw like timber, but being washed with lime, becomes hard; these stones are greatly in request throughout the West Indies, for filtering water. These islands produce no exportable article worth mentioning; and are only important to this country, because they would be dangerous in the possession of an enemy. St. George's has long since been made a free port, with all the privileges possessed by that of Nassau and others in the Bahamas; and in 1811 further privileges were granted to the Bermudas, in consequence of the war declared against this country by the United States of America. All vessels of every nation, even those of the enemy, carrying produce to these islands, are protected both in the outward and homeward voyage. They have also been the chief station for our ships of war, and the head quarters of the admiral of the fleet employed in these seas, in consequence of the American war. The population is said to be 5000 whites, 200 free persons of colour, and 5000 slaves. The treatment of these is so mild, and their condition so happy, that they are trusted as crews of privateers, and refuse every opportunity of being emancipated or separated from their masters.

HONDURAS.

IN the Carribbean sea, and in a bay which bears its name, is placed the British settlement of Honduras. It is situated in the province of Yucatan, or Jucatan, a peninsula extending from the province Honduras to the sea northwardly, forming the Bay of Campeachy on the west, and the Bay of Honduras on the east. It extends from about sixteen to twenty-one degrees north latitude, and from about eighty-four to ninety-four degrees west longitude. This part of America was discovered by Columbus in 1502.

An English settlement had been formed in this place, by means of the Indian natives; it was recognised by the court of Madrid in the treaty of Paris in 1763, and continued to flourish till the year 1779, when, without giving the six months notice stipulated by that treaty, or indeed any notice, the Spaniards suddenly fell upon, plundered, and imprisoned the settlers, who received no compensation for their wrongs, but were reinstated in their possessions after four years' captivity, at the peace in 1783; since which time it has been enjoyed without any actual interruption, although once threatened with invasion.

The town of *Balize*, which is placed at the mouth of the river of the same name, is the only regular establishment which the English settlers have formed in this country. It is immediately open to the sea, and though the situation is low, it is pleasant and healthy; the houses are about two hundred. As there are no roads, the only access to the interior is by water, which is easy and well provided for.

In all directions, the approach of the extensive coast which lies contiguous to the Bay of Honduras, is attended with imminent anxiety and danger; and the difficulty of the navigation is alarmingly demonstrated by the numerous remains of vessels that have been wrecked on the different reefs and keys which are abundantly dispersed along it. These keys are so like each other, that the most experienced seaman, when placed amongst them, often becomes fatally perplexed from the impossibility he finds of accurately ascertaining his situation. Many of the keys contiguous to the shores of Honduras are of considerable extent; and some of them in particular spots are cultivated, chiefly by the persons engaged in turtling and fishing. The largest, named *Turneff*, is a cluster of several small ones divided by creeks and lagoons. *St. George's Key*, about three leagues distant, in a north-east direction from Balize, is a most agreeable healthful spot, and contains a number of good houses. This
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is much resorted to as a place of retirement by the inhabitants of the settlement during the hot months: the purity of the air and other advantages connected with it, render it likewise a desirable retreat for the sick and convalescent. At one period, St. George's Key was the chief place of trade in this part of the world, on which the merchants almost wholly resided; and where the vessels engaged in it deposited their cargoes and again took in their lading. *Ambergrease Key*, to the northward of Balize, is also of considerable size, abounding with extensive fresh water lakes, and, at most seasons, plentifully stocked with many kinds of game. This key is likewise said to produce logwood, and the more valuable kind of dye-wood, named Brafiletto. These keys were long the chosen haunts of the Buccaneers who infested this part of America; and from which, at most seasons, they could issue forth, equipped and supplied to carry on their depredations in the neighbouring seas, or on the contiguous shores, and to which, when pursued, they might retreat, protected by the intricacy of a navigation where none durst follow.

The principal articles imported from Europe into the settlement of Honduras, are linens of all kinds, printed cottons, muslins of the most costly manufacture, negro clothing, broad cloths, hosiery, hats fine and coarse, shoes, boots, earthen and glass wares, silver and plated goods, hardware and cutlery; of the latter large quantities, particularly of cutlass blades, which are used for clearing the grounds of underwood. Salted provisions of different kinds, either from Britain or America, are also continually demanded for the support of the slaves. The vast consumption, independent of any re-exportation, of most of the foregoing articles, is extraordinary, if the magnitude of the settlement be considered. This is in a great degree occasioned by the comparative affluence of the greater number of the persons comprising it. A very profitable commerce in cattle is carried on by a few individuals of the settlement with the Spaniards who are resident on what is called the Main. It is principally conducted by barter, the Spaniards exchanging their cattle for linen, cloths, sugars, rum, and other commodities. It is conjectured that a profit of five or six hundred per cent. is commonly realised by this traffic. The cattle obtained in this way are either slaughtered, or purchased by the cutters of mahogany, to whom they are peculiarly valuable, for the purpose of draught. They are large and well formed, and the meat they afford extremely well flavoured. On the Spanish Main is likewise raised an uncommonly large and serviceable breed of mules: these are usually exported to Jamaica.

Few countries, perhaps, ever possessed higher advantages, in
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an agricultural point of view, than the greater part of that which is placed contiguous to the Bay of Honduras. The cutting of mahogany and logwood forms a principal occupation, and was indeed the motive for the establishment; but the productions common to the West India islands, with a considerable variety of such as are more familiarly known to that part of the continent which is comprehended within the tropics, might unquestionably be cultivated at Honduras, with equal, if not, in many instances, with superior success. The sugar-cane thrives with the richest luxuriance; coffee grows equally well; cotton and indigo would amply reward the cultivator; the Indian arrow-root is abundantly produced, and pimento has been tried under the most encouraging appearance of profit. Before the removal of the English settlers from the Mosquito shore, several sugar plantations had been formed on Black River; and the sugar and rum which they furnished were very generally deemed, by competent judges, not inferior to the same articles the produce of Jamaica. Rice, maize, or Indian corn, yams of various species, cassava-root, of which is made a very palatable bread, and the plantain, all flourish under the united influence of a tropical climate and generous soil, scarcely requiring labour or attention. The pine-apple, banana, and melon, being very commonly interspersed between the rows of plantains, contribute to heighten the luxuriance of the scene; and the mountain cabbage, occasionally rearing its lofty head far above the whole, adds, no inconsiderable share of grandeur to the general effect.

The domestic animals of Honduras are such as are generally known in most parts of Europe. The pasturage afforded them being extensive and good, cattle, particularly oxen and cows, thrive uncommonly well; and the latter supply a plentiful quantity of milk. Sheep also, and goats, are found to succeed, the last in a most prolific degree. The sheep does not lose its fleece, as it invariably does in the West Indies.

Of fisheries, the most profitable, and consequently the most pursued in this country, is that of the turtle, of which a few find their way to the London market; but the principal consumption is domestic. The persons engaged in turtling are generally inhabitants of the different keys in the neighbourhood of Balize. From the uncommon variety of fishes with which the sea contiguous to this coast abounds, it might be conjectured that the curing several sorts of them would form an advantageous employment. Of the kinds which might more immediately answer this purpose, may be named the baracouta, and jew-fish, both exceedingly well flavoured and firm. The former is often caught of sixty pounds weight; the latter frequently

quently upwards of two hundred. The manati is also taken on the coast and in the neighbouring lagoons, the flesh of which, either fresh or salted, is considered a great delicacy. The weight of this sometimes exceeds a thousand pounds. The inferior kinds are very numerous. Among the choicest fruits, beside bananas, melons of several sorts, and pine-apple in equal variety, are oranges of superior flavour, lemons, limes, shaddocks, mango, guava, mammee, cashew apple, tamarind, prickly pear, avocada pear, pomegranate, wild plums of many species, sea grapes, and other sorts. It may also be worthy of remark, that the grape of Madeira has been introduced into Honduras, and gives every promise of becoming familiarised to its new situation.

The river *Balize* gives its name to the principal establishment, and has the oldest and most valuable mahogany works connected with it. Some of the wood-cutters have placed themselves as high up this river as two hundred miles from its entrance; from the sea to this distance, it is perfectly navigable for all the purposes required; the continuance of it beyond this, though conjectured to be far, is not very accurately known. The *Sibun*, or *Sheeboon*, as it is usually called, is the next river of importance; its navigation is much bolder than that of the *Balize*, and vast quantities of mahogany are floated down it, and from the many branches and creeks with which it is united. The sides, for a considerable distance, are thickly studded with plantations, and the soil connected with it is generally considered of rich and productive quality. During the rains, the floods in the *Sibun* are extremely great; for, in a few hours, it has been known to rise from its original level upwards of fifty feet: its decrease is usually as rapid; and little inconvenience, excepting the occasional loss of a few cattle, happens to the settlers from this circumstance. Its entrance from the sea is about three leagues in a southwardly direction from the river *Balize*. Several of the rivers comprehended within the English limits, plentifully abounding with both mahogany and logwood, were abandoned at the commencement of hostilities with Spain in 1804. The causes of this measure were the immediate vicinity of these rivers to the possessions of Spain, and the insecurity that might attend the unprotected settler in his employment. Our establishments of this kind were more particularly confined to the *Rio-Neuvo*, and *Rio-Honda*; each of them a short distance from the settlement of *Balize*, and both navigable for vessels of considerable burthen.

The administration of justice is vested in a bench of seven magistrates, elected annually. The office of superintendant of the settlement has always been filled by a person of military rank,

rank, combining the duties of the first civil magistrate with those of commandant of the troops. The superior courts are held three times in each year; other courts are also occasionally convened, to determine matters of inferior kind, and to adjust the differences of transient persons.

This settlement, including that of the Mosquito shore, where logwood is cut, is said to contain 170 white persons, 1000 free persons of colour, and 3000 slaves. These round numbers are of course derived from computation, and not the result of a regular census.

THE WEST INDIES.

ALTHOUGH in describing these possessions the authority of Brian Edwards is principally relied on, yet his arrangement and distribution of the matter has not always been followed, the geographical position of the islands appearing to be a preferable course; but with that exception, his history has been regularly pursued, and the more readily because his general observations, narratives, and descriptions once adverted to, repetition becomes unnecessary.

SITUATION. To that prodigious chain of islands which extends in a curve from the Florida shore, on the northern peninsula, to the gulf of Venezuela in the southern, is given the denomination of the *West Indies*, from the name of India originally assigned to them by Columbus. This illustrious navigator planned his expedition, not, as Raynal and others have supposed, under the idea of introducing a New World to the knowledge of the old; but, as already has been shown, principally in the view of finding a route to India by a western navigation. So firmly persuaded was Columbus of the truth and certainty of such a discovery, that he continued to assert his belief of it after the discovery of Cuba and Hispaniola; not doubting that those islands constituted some part of the eastern extremity of Asia. Even when the discovery of the Pacific ocean had demonstrated his mistake, all the countries which Columbus had visited still retained the name of the Indies; and, in contradistinction to those at which the Portuguese, after passing the Cape of Good Hope, had at length arrived by an eastern course, they were now denominated the *Indies of the West*. Foreigners call the islands *Antilia*, or *Antilles*; but to the British nation, the name bestowed by Columbus is abundantly more familiar; and thus the whole of the new hemisphere is, with us, commonly comprised under three great divisions; North America, South America, and the West Indies.

dies. But, subordinate to this comprehensive and simple arrangement, necessity or convenience has introduced more minute and local distinctions. That portion of the Atlantic, which is separated from the main ocean to the north and to the east, by the islands already mentioned, although commonly known by the general appellation of the Mexican gulf, is itself properly divided into three distinct basins: the Gulf of Mexico, the Bay of Honduras, and the Charibbean Sea. The latter takes its name from that class of islands which bound this part of the ocean to the east.

CLIMATE. Most of these countries being situated beneath the tropic of cancer, the circumstances of climate, as well in regard to general heat, as to the periodical rains and consequent variation of seasons, are in all nearly the same. The temperature of the air varies indeed considerably, according to the elevation of the land; but, with this exception, the medium degree of heat is alike in all the countries of this part of the globe. A tropical year seems properly to comprehend but two distinct seasons, the *wet* and the *dry*; but as the rains in these climates constitute two great periods, the year is described, like that of Europe, under four divisions. The vernal season commences with May, attended with gentle showers. After these rains have continued about a fortnight, the weather becomes dry and settled, and the tropical summer sun reigns in full glory. Cloudless nights succeed to scorching days, refreshed, however, by alternate land and sea breezes. The autumn begins in September, when the breezes no longer mitigating the violence of heat, rain descends in floods, thunder reverberates from the hills, and that most dreadful of all visitations, the hurricane, may be expected. Lastly, in the period from the beginning of December to the end of April, the atmosphere is cleared by the north wind, and there is a succession of serene and pleasant weather, refreshing, invigorating, and forming the paradise of the valetudinarian and the aged. This is rather a general than a particular account, as it varies in various islands; mountains, and many other circumstances, occasioning considerable difference. The *trade wind* blows in these climates from the east, and its collateral points, nine months in the year.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Passing over, as unconnected with the present subject, the accounts which are given of the original inhabitants, and their miserable reduction or extermination by the Spaniards, it will be necessary to mention, in a general way, the principal animal and vegetable productions which distinguish these settlements. In tracing the several tribes of quadrupeds, properly so called, which anciently existed in the West Indies, it will be found that the Windward, or Cha-

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ribbean Islands, possessed all that were known in the larger islands, and some species peculiar to themselves. The enumeration of them follows: 1. The agouti. 2. The pecary. 3. The armadillo. 4. The opussum. 5. The racoon. 6. The musk rat. 7. The alco: and 8. The smaller monkey, of several varieties. Beside these animals, and those furnished by the rivers and the sea, the woods were peopled with two very extraordinary creatures; both of which anciently were, and still are, not only used as food, but accounted superior delicacies. These are the iguana, and the mountain crab. The iguana (or, as it is more commonly written, *guana*) is a species of lizard; a class of animals, about which naturalists are not agreed whether to rank them with quadrupeds, or serpents. The iguana is commonly about three feet long, and proportionably bulky. It lives chiefly among fruit trees, and is perfectly gentle and innoxious. It is now become scarce in the islands which are well peopled, and was never much used as food by the English; but those who have eaten it, pronounce it equal, in flavour and wholesomeness, to the finest green turtle. The mountain crab, which is now also nearly exterminated, is remarkable for living in a sort of regulated government. Immense troops were used to issue from the mountains, and proceeding in a line, mathematically direct, except where insurmountable impediments obstructed them, deposit their spawn in the sand of the sea shore, and then in equal order return to the mountains, whither, when able, their young were used to follow them. They are very delicate food.

The woods and the marshes equally abound with wild fowl, of infinite variety, and exquisite flavour. The shores have a great variety and plenty of excellent fish; and among the native esculents, the most valuable are the maize, the mainock or cassava, and the dioscarea or yam; the fruits are in great variety and profusion, and of excellent quality. Among the best may be enumerated the anana, or pine-apple, the mangoe, the orange, the lemon, the shaddock, the avocada pear, the tamarind, the melon, and the cocoa nut. The staple production of the islands is sugar; the planting of the cane, the crop, the boiling, the distillation of rum, and the various other processes incident to it, are matters of long detail, and laborious inquiry. Cotton is the next produce in point of importance, and after it indigo; then in their respective degrees come coffee, cacao, ginger, arnotto, aloes, and pimento.

GOVERNMENT. The systems of the different colonies conform, as nearly as possible, to that of the mother country. Their different orders of judicature are exactly like those of England; and their legislatures, in general, consist of three distinct

distinct branches; a governor, representing the crown; a council, or upper house; and a body of delegates, representing the people at large. The first two are necessarily imperfect, because they are not independent; but the members of the last are fairly and equally chosen by their constituents.

THE GOVERNOR. Every chief governor in the British West Indies is appointed by letters patent under the great seal of Great Britain. He receives, through courtesy, the title of Excellency, and is vested with the following powers: first, as captain-general and commander-in-chief, he has the actual command of all the land forces within his government (except only when a general officer is employed on the staff,) and he commissions all officers of the militia. He appoints the judges of all the different courts of common law; nominates and supercedes, at will, the custodes of the several parishes, justices of the peace, and other subordinate civil officers. He has authority also, with the advice of his council, to summon general assemblies; he appoints the place of their meeting, and when met, possesses a negative voice in the legislature; for, without his consent, no bill passes into a law; and he may, from time to time, as he alone shall judge needful, adjourn, prorogue, and dissolve all such general assemblies. He has the disposal of all such civil employments as the crown does not dispose of; and even in them, if vacancies happen, the governor appoints *pro tempore*; and the persons so appointed are entitled to all the emoluments, until persons nominated to supersede them arrive in the colony. The governor claims the privilege also, in extraordinary cases, of suspending such civil officers even as act immediately under the King's authority, or by commission from the boards of treasury and admiralty, as the attorney and advocate-general, the collectors and comptrollers of the customs, and of nominating other persons to act in their room, until the King's pleasure can be known. To all these privileges is added the authority, in criminal matters, of extending pardon to delinquents, except only in cases of murder and high treason; and even in these the governor may reprieve, until the signification of the royal pleasure.

Secondly, the governor has the custody of the great seal, and, in most of the colonies, presides solely in the High Court of Chancery.

Thirdly, the governor is ordinary, and collates to all vacant church benefices. He has also the power of granting probate of wills, and administration of the effects of persons dying intestate. He grants licenses, and is sole judge in all matters relating to the consistorial or ecclesiastical law.

Fourthly, the governor presides in the Court of Error, of which

which he and the council are judges, to hear and determine all appeals, in the nature of writs of error, from the superior courts of common law.

Fifthly, the governor is also vice-admiral within the extent of his government. As such, he is entitled to the rights of *jetsam* and *flotsam*, and in time of war, issues his warrant to the judge of the court of vice-admiralty, to grant commissions to privateers.

Lastly, a colonial governor, besides various emoluments arising from fees, fines, forfeitures, and escheats, has an honourable annual provision settled on him by act of assembly.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL or LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR. In a government comprehending several islands, as that of the Leeward Charibbean islands, there is commonly appointed, together with the captain-general, or chief governor, a lieutenant-general, who is next in succession. He is usually lieutenant-governor likewise of one of the islands included within the general government, each of which, in the absence of the captain-general from that particular island, has its affairs administered by a lieutenant-governor, or the president of the council; most commonly the latter, as it is not often that the lieutenant-governor is on the spot. In Jamaica, it is seldom that a lieutenant-governor is appointed during the residence on the island of a captain-general, there being no establishment or provision for such an officer holding a dormant commission; who has, therefore, neither power nor profit. He is not, as lieutenant-governor, entitled even to a seat in the council. On the resignation, or absence on leave, of the captain-general, a lieutenant-governor, if not present, is frequently sent over, who then succeeds to the supreme command, and receives the full emoluments of the government.

THE COUNCIL. The members of this board are severally appointed by royal mandamus, directed to the governor, and countersigned by the secretary of state, and the names of the several members for the time being are inserted in the governor's instructions. In Jamaica their full complement is twelve; in some of the smaller islands ten; and in case of as many vacancies by death, absence, or suspension, as reduce the board under seven, the governor, or commander-in-chief, is empowered to fill up to that number, but no farther. Their privileges, powers, and offices, are these:

First, they are, by courtesy, stiled *honourable*; they take precedence next to the commander-in-chief, and, on the death or absence of the governor, lieutenant-general, and lieutenant-governor, the eldest member of the council succeeds to the government, under the title of *President*.

Secondly, they are a council of state, the governor or commander-in-chief presiding in person, to whom they stand in the same relation as the privy council in Great Britain does to the sovereign.

Thirdly, The members are named, in every commission of the peace, as justices, throughout the colony to which they belong.

Fourthly, The council, together with the commander-in-chief, sit as judges in the court of error, or court of appeal in civil causes from the courts of record; and in some of the islands, two or more of the members sit with the governor in the court of chancery, as assistant commissioners of the great seal; appeals from chancery therefore lie not before them, but are by the King's order, avoked before His Majesty himself in council.

Fifthly, the council is a constituent part of the legislature; their consent being necessary in the enacting of laws. In this capacity of legislators, they sit as the upper house, and in most of the colonies, distinct from the governor; claim privilege of parliament, order the attendance of persons, and the productions of papers and records, and commit for contempts; enter protests on their journals after the manner of the house of peers, and have their chaplain, clerk, usher of the black rod, and other officers.

THE ASSEMBLY. Colonial assemblies have constantly copied, and are required to copy, as nearly as circumstances will permit, the example of the parliament of Great Britain. The freeholders are assembled in each town, or parish respectively, by the King's writ; their suffrages are taken by an officer of the crown, and the persons elected are afterwards commanded, by royal proclamation, to meet together, at a certain time and place in the proclamation named, to frame statutes and ordinances for the public safety. — When met, the oaths of allegiance and supremacy are administered, and a speaker being chosen and approved, the session opens by a speech from the King's representative. The assembly then proceed, as a grand provincial inquest, to hear grievances, and to correct such public abuses as are not cognisable before inferior tribunals. They commit for contempts; and the courts of law have refused, after solemn argument, to discharge persons committed by the speaker's warrant. — They examine and control the accounts of the public treasurer; they vote such supplies, lay such taxes, and frame such laws, statutes and ordinances, as the exigencies of the province or colony require. — Jointly with the governor and council, they exercise the highest acts of legislation; for their penal laws, which the judges are sworn

sworn to execute, extend even to life; many persons having suffered death under laws passed in the colonies, even before they had received the royal assent. On the whole, subject to the restriction that their trade-laws are not to be repugnant to those of Great Britain, there are no concerns of a local and provincial nature, to which the authority of the colonial enactments does not extend.

Having thus noticed the general characteristics of all these settlements, it is purposed to give some account of each.

THE BAHAMAS.

THE Bahama Islands lie in a diagonal line, running south-east and north-west, nearly seven hundred miles in extent, between the seventy-first and eighty-first degrees of west longitude, and the twenty-first and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. From the names given by the aborigines to the two largest islands, situated at the north-western extremity of the range, they have been sometimes called the *Lucayas*, or more generally, *Bahamas*. The greater islands, or rather groups of islands, may be esteemed fourteen in number. The smaller, it has been computed, amount to at least seven hundred.

These islands in their present state merit little description. Amid a cluster of quays, and the rocks called the Gallipagos Islands, are situated the *Great Bahama* and *Lucaya*, both uninhabited, and without sign of cultivation. *Eleuthera* was known at a very early period in Europe, from the medicinal virtue of a shrub which it produces, of the name of eleuthera, or ila-thera (Croton). The bark of this shrub, possessing less astringency, has been sometimes preferred, in the practice of physic, to the Peruvian bark; but the island is principally valued for the provisions and fruit, especially pines, which it yields, and from whence the market of Providence is supplied. It was cultivated at a very early period, and considerable settlements were formed there, under the government of Captain Woodes Rogers. Many of the proprietors reside on the adjacent territory, called *Harbour Island*, originally peopled by seafaring people, who were first attracted by the convenience of a harbour, and in process of time, probably when tired of the sea, bestowed their labour on gardens and provision grounds; and as the soil on Harbour Island was unproductive, they formed their principal plantations on Eleuthera. *Andros*, although rocky, and possessing a light soil, has invited some cultivation. Its mahogany is spoken of as comparatively large, and it is said to abound with a species of pitch pine.

NEW PROVIDENCE. This island is entitled to attention as the most cultivated and populous of the Bahamas, and as the seat of government. On the 17th October, 1492, it was visited by Columbus, and named *Fernandina*, in honour of Ferdinand King of Spain; but so much was the public attention engrossed by the valuable countries to which he afterward directed his course, that the discovery of the island was attributed to an English navigator, (Captain William Sayle,) driven there in 1667, on his passage to Carolina. From the fortunate preservation which, on that or a subsequent voyage, he experienced in this island from shipwreck, Captain Sayle called it Providence. As the same name, however, had been given to a district of country on the coast of our northern settlements in America, this, as the latest discovery, was probably distinguished by the description of New Providence. From the representation which this gentleman made, on his return home, to the proprietors of Carolina, (of which colony he was afterwards governor,) Providence, with the other Bahama islands, was granted by Charles II. to the Duke of Albemarle, and five other proprietary lords. Shortly after its location, some emigrants from England and the other colonies in America, having settled, or proposing to form a settlement on the island, in 1672, Mr. Collingworth was sent out to superintend the infant colony at Nassau. Some misunderstanding having taken place, he was seized by the licentious inhabitants (probably for the most part pirates), and transported to Jamaica. Although the proprietary lords, some years afterward, sent out a successor to Mr. Collingworth, they do not appear to have made any energetic efforts to repress such audacities; but the Spaniards, who were most interested to inflict an exemplary vengeance on a colony which, in the neighbourhood of one of their valuable possessions, committed incessant depredations on its commerce, made frequent and ineffectual attempts to exterminate the settlement at Nassau. From this motive, combined with the jealousy they always entertained of the colonization of any other nation, in a part of the globe which they considered exclusively as their own, in one of their descents on Nassau, it is said, they actually *roasted* Mr. Clarke, the governor. But the pirates, whose loss of property was easily replaced, by the means by which it was originally acquired, were no sooner dispersed than they returned to their favourite asylum; and the only permanent effect produced by these attacks was a more malignant hatred against their invaders, cherished even to this day. In a course of years, several governors were successively appointed; but their government being a mixture of legitimate authority, and licentious piracy, the island was, in 1708, completely

pletely depopulated by the Spaniards and French, although before that period it had been reckoned to contain 1000 inhabitants. It became afterwards celebrated as a rendezvous of the famous pirate, so well known by the name of Black Beard. After the fall of this ruffian, a regular government was established, under which it has continued to the present period, except during short terms of capture by enemies.

The harbour of New Providence, to which the early settlement and present consequence of this island may be attributed, is formed by a long key or slip of land running in front of the town of Nassau, nearly parallel with its length, from east-south-east to west-north-west. The body of the town is on the southern side of the harbour, and extends on a pretty steep acclivity to the summit of a ridge, which runs for the most part in the direction of the general line of the coast. The view of the town, comprehending on the west a large fortress (on the same eminence), and the barracks for the troops, overlooking the sea, is extremely striking from the mouth of the harbour. The streets are regularly disposed, and in some parts remarkable for their unparalleled smoothness, being nothing more than the solid surface of a stone quarry, which has afforded abundant materials for building on the spot. A considerable square, or quadrangle, susceptible of much embellishment, occupies a large space in the western division of the town. The north side of this open space, near the water, is bounded by palisadoes, inclosing the works of a neglected fortress, from whence the town is named. The present residence of the governor of the Bahamas is at some distance from this square, and toward the upper end of one of the streets, has a pleasing command of view, which includes the lower part of the town, Hog Island, the harbour intervening, and the more distant sea. The governor's dwelling was provided for him at the expense of the colonial government; but the assembly voted 10,000*l.* for the erection of a new one. The opulence of this small island is derived from other sources than the soil; for it can scarcely boast of a single cotton plantation, and remains in a great measure clothed in its native wood. Many of the principal planters, however, on the other islands, who are concerned in the administration of the government, or in trade, have fixed their residence at Nassau. It is also the principal military and naval station in the Bahamas.

The town of Nassau is divided into two parishes, each of which is provided with a church and rector, liberally supported by public contribution, or the eleemosynary bounty of the English society for propagating the gospel.

The principal trade is with England, the southern islands in

the West Indies, and the United States of America, from whence the island derives continual supplies of live stock and provisions.

The constitution of the Bahamas is upon the model of all our colonial governments in the West Indies. The governor's annual income is estimated at something less than 3000*l.* sterling, including perquisites. The council consists of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-six, who are returned by the several islands in this government, comprehended in districts. The town of Nassau, and the eastern and western districts of New Providence, are represented by eight, Harbour Island by three, Eleuthera three, Abaco three, St. Salvador one, Long Island two, Exuma three, Andros two, and Crooked Island by one member. The qualification of a representative, generally speaking, is either property of the value of 2000*l.* currency, or specifically 200 acres of cultivated land. In the choice, every free male white inhabitant, twenty-one years of age, resident twelve months within the government, and having been six months a householder or a freeholder, or having paid duties to the amount of 50*l.* in the preceding year, is entitled to a vote.

Beside the courts in which the governor presides, there is a supreme court exercising the functions of the Court of King's Bench; a court of Common Pleas for recovery of debts not exceeding 20*l.*, and a court of Vice Admiralty.

GUANAHAM, or ST. SALVADOR. This island, insignificant in itself, is entitled to particular notice as the first land which Columbus discovered, the immediate cause of his preservation from the mutiny of his discontented crew, and the first assurance of those extensive discoveries which afterward gave a new world to the knowledge of Europe. On the 11th of October, 1492, that illustrious navigator first struck soundings to the westward of this island, and, laying to in the night, observed a light on shore at the distance of two leagues. The next morning he landed in his boat somewhere on the eastern or the southern coast, and rowed on the ensuing day to a harbour, supposed to be that which at present bears the name of *Port Howe*. A small Indian village, consisting of six houses, then stood near the landing-place, surrounded with trees, exhibiting the appearance of gardens. A country-house called *Columbia*, in honour of the great navigator, is now situated near this supposed spot. On the first arrival of the Spaniards, it is said, the unsuspecting but devoted natives were never satisfied with looking at them; they knelt down, lifted up their hands and gave thanks to God, inviting one another to admire the *heavenly men*. Twenty years, however, had scarcely elapsed before these heavenly men found it convenient to transport

port them, by force or artifice, to dig in the mines of Hispaniola; a measure to which the court of Spain was tempted to give its assent, by the plausible suggestion that it would be the most effectual mode of civilising and instructing them in the christian religion. Upon this pretence 40,000 souls (probably the whole population of the islands) were carried to Hispaniola. So exalted was the opinion which this simple people entertained of their destroyers, and so strong and universal is the persuasion of the human mind that a destiny awaits it beyond the miseries and disappointments of its present bounded existence, that many of the Lucayans were induced with cheerfulness to abandon their homes, under a persuasion that they should meet in a happier country the spirits of their deceased friends, with whom the Spaniards represented themselves as living in a state of society. As the situation of these islands with respect to each other invited a continual intercourse amongst the inhabitants, who probably subsisted in a great measure on fish, it may justly be presumed they were principally devoted to a maritime life. Some of their canoes were large enough to carry between forty and fifty persons. Indeed many convincing proofs of their intrepidity and expertness in the water occurred after their transportation to St. Domingo, when, finding the delusion which had been practised to decoy them from their native country, they made every effort to regain it. Some few effected their escape, although many were frustrated in their design; and, after most extraordinary, though unavailing efforts, dragged back to the country they so much detested, to end their days in unmitigated slavery. It was the contemplation of scenes like these that induced the humane Las Casas to recommend the purchase of negroes in Africa, as a more fit mode of West Indian culture than the stealing and extermination of these unsuspecting and benevolent aborigines.

The remaining islands do not demand description; being recently brought into cultivation, their circumstances are nearly similar, their prosperity being greater or less in proportion to their situation, or the skill and enterprise of the landholders. There are groups of small indescribable islets, known by the names of the French Keys, the Hogsties, and the Caicos, or Caucus.

THE TURK'S ISLANDS. These small, and apparently unimportant islands, are of some consequence to government, from the quantity of salt they produce in natural ponds. The calcareous rock, of which the land is composed, lies generally in horizontal layers. From the violent action of the sea, which has evidently, and perhaps recently, beaten over them, the surface every where appears worn, fretted, and broken into

holes, or often deep excavations; hence the ocean water finds a passage, and has formed, in many parts of the interior, extensive *salinas*, or ponds. Although the inhabitants of the other islands, perhaps, amongst other causes, owing to a more northern position, have not hitherto much attended to the great natural advantage of their salt-ponds, little doubt seems at present entertained of their becoming a source of considerable profit, from the quantity of salt produced, and the facility with which it may be obtained. For early in the year, when the power of the sun begins to increase, accompanied with dry weather, the salt everywhere in these natural ponds begins to crystallise and subside in solid cakes. It remains then only to break the crystals and rake the salt on shore; and by this easy mode a single labourer may take from forty to sixty bushels of salt in a day. The process, however, is facilitated by making small pans, which, as the salt is taken out, may be replenished with brine from the pond. The two principal ponds from whence the salt is obtained in this cluster of islands, lie at that which is called the *Grand Turk*, and at a smaller island, called *Salt Key*, on the south side of it. The island called *Grand Turk*, may be about twelve miles long, and, at a mean, two miles broad from east to west. The soil, which is sandy, admits but of little cultivation, and produces only a small quantity of Guinea-corn, an agreeable and nutritious grain, which is universally cultivated throughout the Bahamas. The principal pond on the island is considerably more than a mile in length. There are also some of less note, and particularly one near a harbour on the east-side of the *Grand Turk*, from whence some small quantity of salt is obtained.

The resident inhabitants are few in number. Before the American war they amounted to about eighteen white heads of families, and forty slaves, since which period there probably has been little increase; but in the early part of the year, when the salt begins to make, a number of periodical visitants, from the *Bermudas*, come over for the purpose of raking it. These visitors are said sometimes to number nearly two thousand. The pans which the salt-rakers generally lay out are not all of equal dimensions, but depend on each individual's judgment or experience. They are filled with brine about six inches deep, or so as to cover a man's ankles, and a moveable machine like the wheel of a water-mill, but turned by a handle, throws the water from the pond into a gutter, from which the pan is conveniently and readily supplied. A free port is established at the *Turk's Islands*, which admits the Americans, their principal customers, to carry away the salt in their own bottoms, subject to a duty of two shillings and sixpence Bahama currency,
(eight

(eight shillings to the dollar) per ton, payable to the crown. The colonial government has also imposed a further duty on salt exported.

The inhabitants of the Bahamas are stated by Mr. Colquhoun to be 3600 white persons, 3300 free persons of colour, and 10,000 slaves.

JAMAICA.

SITUATION AND CLIMATE. Jamaica is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, about four thousand miles south-west of England. It has Hispaniola, at the distance of thirty leagues, to the east; Cuba, about the same distance, to the north; the gulf of Honduras to the west; and Carthagená, on the great continent of South America, to the south, distant one hundred and forty-five leagues. The centre of Jamaica lies in about $18^{\circ} 12'$ north latitude, and in longitude about $76^{\circ} 45'$ west from London. The climate is extremely hot, with little variation from January to December; the days and nights are nearly of equal duration, there being little more than two hours' difference between the longest days and the shortest: there is very little twilight, and when it is twelve o'clock at noon in London, it is about seven in the morning in Jamaica.

HISTORY. Columbus discovered this island on the 3d of May 1494; it was taken possession of by the Spaniards, who, with their accustomed inhumanity, totally exterminated the natives, 60,000 in number. In 1665 the territory was wrested from these butchers by an English force under the command of Penn and Venables. The protector Oliver Cromwell has been severely censured for breach of faith in this capture, but he is vindicated by Mr. Bryan Edwards. At all events, the state of the island was soon changed for the better. The sloth and penury of the Spanish planters, when the English landed, were extreme. Of the many valuable commodities which Jamaica has since produced in so great abundance, some were altogether unknown, and of the rest the inhabitants cultivated no more than were sufficient for their own expenditure. Their principal export, besides cocoa, consisted of hog's-lard and hides. The sale of these articles, and supplying the few ships that touched at their ports with provisions, in barter for European manufactures, constituted the whole of their commerce; a commerce which the savages of Madagascar conduct with equal ability and success. They possessed nothing of the elegancies of life, nor were they even acquainted with many of those qualifications which, in civilised states, are considered as necessary to comfort

fort and convenience. They were neither polished by social intercourse nor improved by education; but passed their days in gloomy languor, enfeebled by sloth and depressed by poverty. Having at the same time little or no connection with Europe, and no means of sending their children thither for education, they had been for many years in a state of progressive degeneracy, and would probably in a short time have expiated the guilt of their ancestors, by falling victims themselves to the vengeance of their slaves. The island has ever since remained in the hands of the English, although several attempts have been made to recapture it, and expeditions have even been fitted out by France and Spain almost on purpose.

DESCRIPTION. Jamaica is one hundred and fifty miles in length; and on a medium of three measurements at different places, about forty miles in breadth, affording, if allowance is made for the mountains, a surface of 4,080,000 acres. Of these in 1789, no more than 1,907,589 had been located, or taken up, by grants from the crown, and even of them little more than one million were in cultivation. There were 710 sugar estates, and 400 breeding farms, or, as they are called, pens. Nor is it supposed, that of the portion which is uncultivated above one-fourth could ever be brought into use, it being impracticable and inaccessible. The land, however, exhibits no sign of barrenness, being covered with extensive woods, containing excellent timbers, some parts of which are of prodigious growth and solidity; such as the *lignumvitæ*, dog wood, iron wood, pigeon wood, green heart, brazilletto and bulley trees; most of which sink in water, and are of a compactness and impenetrability inconceivable by European workmen. Some of these are necessary in mill-work, and would be highly valuable in the Windward Islands. Of softer kinds, for boards and shingles, the species are innumerable; and there are many beautiful varieties adapted for cabinet-work; among others, the bread-nut, the wild lemon, and the well-known mahogany.

RIVERS AND SPRINGS. As the country is thus abundantly wooded, so on the whole, it may be said to be well watered. There are reckoned, throughout its extent, above one hundred rivers, which take their rise in the mountains, and run, commonly with great rapidity, to the sea, on both sides of the island. None of them are deep enough to be navigated by marine vessels. Black River in St. Elizabeth, flowing chiefly through a level country, is the deepest and gentlest, and admits flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about thirty miles.

Of the springs, which very generally abound, even in the highest mountains, some are medicinal, and are said to be highly efficacious in disorders peculiar to the climate. The most remarkable

markable of these is found in the eastern parish of St. Thomas, and the fame of it has created a village in its neighbourhood, which is called Bath. The water flows out of a rocky mountain, about a mile distant, and is too hot to admit a hand being held underneath. A thermometer on Fahrenheit's scale immersed in this water, rises to 123° . It is sulphureous, and has been used with great advantage in that dreadful disease of the climate called the dry-belly-ache. There are other springs, both sulphureous and chalybeate, in different parts of the country; of which, however, the properties are little known to the inhabitants in general.

PRODUCTIONS. It is not intended to enumerate among the productions of any island those which are already mentioned as common to all the West Indies; but only such growths as contribute to the particular gratification of the inhabitants of each. The several kinds of kitchen-garden produce, as edible roots and pulse, which are known in Europe, thrive also in the mountains of this island; and the markets of Kingston and Spanish Town are supplied with cabbages, lettuce, carrots, turnips, parsnips, artichokes, kidney-beans, green peas, asparagus, and various sorts of European herbs, in the utmost abundance. Some of them (as the first three) are said to be of superior flavour to the same kind produced in England. Among the native growths, the chocho, ochra, Lima-bean, and Indian-kale, are said to be more agreeable than any of the esculent vegetables of Europe. The other indigenous productions of this class are plantains, bananas, yams of several varieties, calalue (a species of spinnage), eddoes, cassavi, and sweet potatoes. A mixture of these, stewed with salted fish, or salted meat of any kind, and highly seasoned with Cayenne-pepper, is a favourite olio among the negroes. For bread, an unripe roasted plantain is an excellent substitute, and universally preferred to it by the negroes and most of the native whites. To the fruits already mentioned, the addition would be unimportant.

TOPOGRAPHY. The island is divided into three counties, which are named Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall.

MIDDLESEX is composed of eight parishes, one town, and thirteen villages. The town is that of *St. Jago-de-la-Vega*, or *Spanish Town*, the capital of the island. Most of the villages of this and the other counties are hamlets of no great account, situated at the different harbours and shipping places, and supported by the traffic carried on there. *St. Jago-de-la-Vega* is situated on the banks of the river Cobre, about six miles from the sea, and contains between five and six hundred houses, and about five thousand inhabitants, including free people of colour.

colour. It is the residence of the Governor or Commander in Chief, who is accommodated with a superb palace; and it is here that the legislature is convened, and the Court of Chancery and the Supreme Court of Judicature are held.

SURRY contains seven parishes, two towns, and eight villages. The towns are those of *Kingston* and *Port Royal*: the former of which is situated on the north side of a beautiful harbour, and was founded in 1693, when repeated desolations by earthquake and fire had driven the inhabitants from Port Royal. It contains upward of one thousand six hundred houses, besides negro-huts and warehouses, and is a place of great trade and opulence. Many of the houses in the upper part of the town are extremely magnificent; and the markets for butchers' meat, turtle, fish, poultry, fruits and vegetables, are inferior to none. *Port Royal*, once a place of the greatest wealth and importance in the West Indies, is now reduced, by repeated calamities, to three streets, a few lanes, and about two hundred houses. It contains, however, the royal navy yard, for heaving down and refitting the King's ships, the navy hospital, and barracks for a regiment of soldiers. The fortifications are kept in excellent order, and are of considerable strength.

CORNWALL contains five parishes, three towns, and six villages. The towns are *Savanna-la-Mar* on the south side of the island, and Montego Bay and Falmouth on the north. The former was almost entirely destroyed by a dreadful hurricane and inundation of the sea in 1780. It is now partly rebuilt. *Montego Bay* is a flourishing and opulent town; and *Falmouth*, or, (as it is more commonly called) *The Point*, is situated on the south side of Martha Brae harbour, and includes the adjoining villages of Martha Brae and the Rock.

Each parish (or precinct consisting of an union of two or more parishes) is governed by a chief magistrate, styled *Custos Rotulorum*, and a body of justices unlimited by law as to number, by whom sessions of the peace are held every three months, and courts of common pleas to try actions arising within the parish or precinct, to an amount not exceeding twenty pounds. In matters of debt not exceeding forty shillings, a single justice is authorised to determine.

CHURCHES. The whole twenty parishes contain eighteen churches and chapels, and each parish is provided with a rector and other church officers. The presentation to the rectors' livings rests with the Governor or Commander in Chief; stipends not exceeding 300*l.* per annum are paid in lieu of tithes, by the church-wardens of the several parishes, from the amount of taxes levied by the vestries on the inhabitants. Each parish builds and repairs a parsonage-house, or allows the rector
fifty

fifty pounds per annum in lieu of one: besides which, many of the livings have glebe lands, of considerable value, annexed to them, as the parish of St. Andrew, which altogether are valued at 1000*l.* sterling per annum. The Bishop of London is said to claim this island as part of his diocese; but his jurisdiction is renounced and barred by the laws of the country; and the Governor or Commander in Chief, as supreme head of the provincial church, not only inducts into the several rectories, on the requisite testimonials being produced that the candidate has been admitted into priest's orders, according to the canons of the church of England, but he is likewise vested with the power of suspending a clergyman of lewd and disorderly life *ab officio*, upon application from his parishioners. A suspension *ab officio* is, in fact, a suspension *a beneficio*, no minister being entitled to his stipend for any longer time than he shall actually officiate, unless prevented by sickness.

VESTRIES. The vestries are composed of the custos, and two other magistrates, the rector, and ten vestrymen; the latter are elected annually by the freeholders. Beside their power of assessing and appropriating taxes, they appoint way-wardens, and allot labourers for the repair of the public highways. They likewise nominate proper persons, who are called collecting constables, for the collection both of the public and parochial taxes.

COURTS. The Supreme Court of Judicature for the whole island (commonly called the Grand Court, as possessing similar jurisdiction in this country, to that of the several courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer in Great Britain) is held in the town of St. Jago-de-la-Vega, on the last Tuesday of each of the months of February, May, August, and November, in every year. In this court the Chief Justice of the island presides, whose salary is only 120*l.*; but the perquisites arising from office make it worth about three thousand pounds per annum. The assistant judges are gentlemen of the island, commonly planters, who receive no reward for their attendance. Three judges must be present to constitute a court; and each term is limited in duration to three weeks. From this court, if the matter in dispute in a civil action be for a sum of 300*l.* sterling, or upwards, an appeal lies to the governor and council, as a court of error; if sentence of death be passed for felony, the appeal is to the governor alone.

Affize Courts, also, are held every three months, in Kingston for the county of Surry, and Savannah-la-Mar for the county of Cornwall. The Surry court begins the last Tuesday in January, April, July, and October. The Cornwall court begins the last Tuesday in March, June, September, and December; each

each assize court is limited to a fortnight in duration. Thus have the inhabitants law courts every month of the year, besides the Courts of Chancery, Ordinary, Admiralty, and the several parish courts. The judges of the Assize Court act without salary or reward, as well as the assistant judges of the Supreme Court, are considered as of one and the same court, and have an equal right in point of priority with those obtained in the grand court.

The Governor, or Commander in Chief, is Chancellor by his office, and presides solely in that high department, which is administered with great form and solemnity. He is also the sole ordinary for the probate of wills and granting letters of administration. From the first of these offices he derives extensive authority, and from the latter considerable emolument.

As appendages of the Supreme Court, the several great offices, as the office of *enrolments*, or *secretary of the island*, provost-marshal-general, clerk of the court, or prothonotary and custos brevium, are held and situated in Spanish Town. The first is an office of record, in which the laws passed by the legislature are preserved, and copies of them entered into fair volumes. In this office all deeds, wills, sales, and patents, must be registered. It is likewise required, that all persons (after six weeks' residence) intending to depart the island, do affix their names in this office twenty-one days before they are entitled to receive a ticket, or let-pass, to enable them to leave the country. In order to enforce this regulation, masters of vessels are obliged, at the time of entry, to give security in the sum of 1,000*l.* not to carry off the island any person without such ticket or let-pass. Trustees, attornies, and guardians of orphans, are required to record annually in this office accounts of the produce of estates in their charge; and by a late act, mortgagees in possession are obliged to register not only accounts of the crops of each year, but also annual accounts current of their receipts and payments. Transcripts of deeds from the office, properly certified, are evidence in any court of law, and all deeds must be enrolled within three months after date, or they are declared to be void, as against any other deed proved and registered within the time limited; but if no second deed is on record, then the same are valid, though registered after the three months. The *provost-marshal-general* is an officer of high rank and great authority. The name denotes a military origin, and doubtless the office was first instituted in this island before the introduction of civil government, and continued afterwards through necessity. It is now held by patent from the crown, which is usually granted for two lives. The powers and authorities

thorities annexed to this office are various ; the acting officer is, in fact, high sheriff of the whole island during his continuance in office, and permitted to nominate deputies under him for every parish or precinct.

The office of *Clerk of the Supreme Court* is likewise held by patent. Of the other great lucrative offices, the principal are those of the register in chancery, receiver-general, and treasurer of the island, naval officer, and collector of the customs for the port of Kingston.

LEGISLATURE. The legislature is composed of the Captain-general, or Commander in Chief, a council consisting of twelve gentlemen, and a house of assembly, containing forty members, who are elected by the freeholders, viz. three for the several towns and parishes of St. Jago-de-la-Vega, Kingston, and Port Royal, and two for each of the other parishes. The qualification required in the electors, is a freehold of 10*l.* per annum in the parish where the election is made ; and in the representative, a landed freehold of three hundred pounds per annum, in any part of the island, or a personal estate of three thousand pounds. In the proceedings of the general assembly they copy, as nearly as local circumstances will admit, the legislature of Great Britain ; and all their bills (those of a private nature excepted) have the force of laws as soon as the governor's assent is obtained. The power of rejection however is still reserved in the crown ; but until the royal disapprobation is signified, the laws are valid.

POPULATION AND TRADE. The population of Jamaica, according to Mr. Colquhoun, is 30,000 white persons, 10,000 free persons of colour, and 350,000 slaves. The colonial shipping is 3,503 tons ; the estimated annual value of all productions of the earth is 11,169,651*l.* ; the exports to the United Kingdom amount to 6,885,339 ; those to other parts to 384,322*l.* ; the imports from the United Kingdom are reckoned at 3,685,725*l.* and from other places at 892,207*l.*

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS.

Under this denomination are comprehended Tortola, Virgin Gorda, Anegada, Anguilla, Barbuda, and their respective dependencies. These possessions are of very inferior importance, and the description of them will be brief. They are all comprised in the government of the Leeward Charibbee Islands, and have a Lieutenant-governor, and of late one council and assembly for all the islands.

Tortola

Tortola was first settled by Buccaneers in 1666, and being wrested from them, became the property of Great Britain. Its productions are sugar and cotton.

Virgin Gorda is of a very irregular shape. Its greatest length from east to west is about eighteen miles; it is worse watered than *Tortola*, and has fewer inhabitants. A mountain which rises in its centre is affirmed to contain a silver mine.

Anegada is dependant on *Virgin Gorda*. It is about six leagues long, low, and almost covered by water at high tides.

Anguilla, or *Snake Island*, so called from its windings and irregular form, is ten leagues in length, and three in breadth; and the most northerly of all the *Charibbee Islands* possessed by the British. It was settled in 1650. The inhabitants subsist mostly by farming, planting Indian corn, and other kinds of husbandry. The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants strong and vigorous. They export sugar, rum, and cotton.

Barbuda, or *Barbouthes*, is twenty miles long and twelve broad. The natives apply themselves chiefly to the breeding of cattle, and furnishing the neighbouring islands with provisions. It is fertile, abounding in the natural productions of the other *West India Islands*, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade to Britain. It belongs to the *Codrington family*.

Among the other *Virgin Islands* are those named *Jos Vandykes* (by the sailors *Geese and Ducks*), *Guana*, *Beef and Thatch*, *Niehar*, *The Dog*, *Prickly-pear*, *Cumana's*, *Ginger*, *Cooper's*, *Salt Island*, and *Peter's Island*.

The population of these islands is estimated to be 300 white, 400 free persons of colour, and 10,000 slaves.

THE LEEWARD CHARIBBEE ISLANDS.

The islands thus denominated, being *St. Christopher's*, *Nevis*, *Antigua*, and *Montserrat*, have formed one distinct government since the year 1672, under a governor denominated *Captain-general of the Leeward Charibbee Islands*, whose residence is at *Antigua*; although he occasionally visits the others, in which, in his absence, where no *Lieutenant-governor* is appointed, the *President of the Council* assumes his place, and executes nearly all his functions.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S. This island, called by its ancient possessors, the *Charribs*, *Liamuiga*, or the *Fertile Island*, was discovered in November, 1493, by *Columbus* himself, who, pleased with its appearance, honoured it with his own *Christian* name, but it was neither planted nor possessed by the *Spaniards*; it

it was the earliest of the British territories in the West Indies, and the common mother both of the English and French settlements in the Charribbean Islands. The first establishment was made by Thomas Warner in 1623; the French however having formed a rival settlement on other parts of the island, it was a subject of contention between the two nations, until the peace of Utrecht, when it was ceded wholly to the English, and the French possessions publicly sold for the benefit of government. In 1733, 80,000*l.* of the money was appropriated as a marriage portion with the Princess Anne, who was betrothed to the Prince of Orange. Some few of the French planters, indeed, who consented to take the oaths, were naturalized, and permitted to retain their estates. The island was taken in 1782 by the French; who brought to the attack 8000 men and 32 ships of war, while the force opposed to them, and which made a long and vigorous resistance, did not amount to 1000 men, including militia. It was restored at the peace in 1783.

Saint Christopher lies in $17^{\circ} 15'$ north latitude, and $63^{\circ} 17'$ west longitude; it is about fourteen leagues in circuit, and contains 43,726 acres, of which about 17,000 are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and 4000 to pasturage. As sugar is the only commodity of any account that is raised, except provisions, and a little cotton, it is probable that nearly one half the whole island is unfit for cultivation. The interior consists, indeed, of rugged precipices and barren mountains. Of these the loftiest is Mount-misery, (evidently a decayed volcano,) which rises 3,711 feet perpendicular from the sea. Nature, however, has made abundant amends for the sterility of the mountains, by the fertility she has bestowed upon the plains. The soil is esteemed to be more eminently than any other adapted to the growth of sugar. There are excellent though not navigable rivers, much resorted to by the navy for water.

This island is divided into nine parishes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. *Basseterre*, (the present capital, as it was formerly that of the French,) containing about 800 houses, *Sandy-Point*, *Old Road*, and *Deep Bay*. Of these, the first two are ports of entry, established by law. The fortifications consist of Charles Fort, and Brimstone Hill, both near Sandy Point; three batteries at Basseterre, one at Fig-tree Bay, another at Palmeto Point, and some smaller ones.

The council should consist of ten members; the house of assembly is composed of twenty-four representatives, of whom fifteen make a quorum. The requisite qualification is a freehold of forty acres of land, or a house worth forty pounds a year. Of the electors, the qualification is a freehold of ten pounds per annum.

The governor is chancellor, and sits alone. Attempts have been made to join some of the council with him, as in Barbadoes, but without success. The jurisdiction of both the King's Bench and Common Pleas centers in one superior court, wherein justice is administered by a chief and four puisne judges.

There are said to be 1200 white inhabitants, 500 free persons of colour, and 30,000 slaves.

NEVIS. This beautiful little spot, divided from St. Christophers only by a small channel, is nothing more than a single mountain, rising like a cone in an easy ascent from the sea; the circumference of its base not exceeding eight English leagues. It is believed that Columbus bestowed on it the appellation of *Nieves*, or the Snows, from its resemblance to a mountain of the same name in Spain; but it is not an improbable conjecture, that in those days a white smoke was seen to issue from the summit, which, at a distance, had a snow-like appearance, and that it derived its name from thence. That the island was produced by some volcanic explosion, there can be no doubt, for there is a hollow, or crater, near the summit, still visible, which contains a hot spring strongly impregnated with sulphur; and sulphur is frequently found in substance in the neighbouring gullies and cavities of the earth. The country is well watered, and the land in general fertile, a small portion toward the summit of the island excepted, which answers however for the growth of ground provisions, such as yams and other esculent vegetables. The soil is stony; the best is a loose black mould on a clay.

This island, small as it is, is divided into five parishes. It contains a town called *Charles Town*, the seat of government, and a port of entry, and there are two other shipping places, called *Indian Castle* and *New Castle*. The principal fortification is at Charles Town, and is called Charles Fort. The commandant is appointed by the crown, but receives a salary from the island.

The council is composed of the president and six other members; the house of assembly consists of fifteen representatives, three for each parish. The administration of common law is under the guidance of a chief, and two assistant judges, and there is an office for the registry of deeds.

The English first established themselves in this island in 1628, under the protection and encouragement of Sir Thomas Warner. The population is 500 white persons, 250 free persons of colour, and 15,000 slaves.

ANTIGUA. This island is situated about twenty leagues to the eastward of St. Christopher's, and was discovered at the same

time with that island by Columbus, who named it from a church in Seville, *Santa Maria de la Antigua*. We are informed by Ferdinand Columbus, that the Indian name was *Jamaica*. It is a singular circumstance that this word, which in the language of the larger islands signified a country *abounding in springs*, should, in the dialect of the Charribs, have been applied to an island that does not contain a single spring or rivulet of fresh water. This inconvenience, without doubt, as it rendered the country uninhabitable to the Charribs, deterred for some time the European adventurers in the neighbouring islands from attempting a permanent establishment; but nature presents few obstacles which avarice or industry will not endeavour to surmount; the lands being fertile, cisterns were contrived to hold rain-water, and in 1632, a few English families took up lands and began to cultivate tobacco. Among these was a son of Sir Thomas Warner, whose descendants still possess very considerable property in the island; but it was chiefly to the enterprising spirit and extensive views of Colonel Codrington, of Barbadoes, that Antigua was indebted for its growing prosperity and subsequent opulence. This gentleman, removing to this island about the year 1674, applied his knowledge in sugar planting with such effect, that others were animated to follow his example, and benefit by his advice. Mr. Codrington was some years afterwards nominated Captain-general, and Commander-in-chief of all the Leeward Charribee islands, and making his power subservient to his benevolent purposes, was rewarded by witnessing the flourishing condition of all the islands under his wise and humane government.

Antigua is upward of fifty miles in circumference, and contains 59,838 acres of land, of which about 34,000 are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and pasturage annexed; its other principal staples are cotton-wool, and tobacco; and they raise, in favourable years, great quantities of provisions. This island contains two different kinds of soil, the one a black mould on a substratum of clay which is naturally rich, and when not checked by excessive droughts, to which Antigua is particularly subject, very productive. The other is a stiff clay on a substratum of marl, much less fertile than the former, and abounding with an inirradicable kind of grass, destructive of all other vegetation. On the whole, the island is said to have progressively decreased both in produce and white population.

Antigua is divided into six parishes and eleven districts, and contains six towns and villages; *Saint John's* (the capital), *Parham*, *Falmouth*, *Willoughby Bay*, *Old Road*, and *James Fort*; of which, the first two are legal ports of entry. No island, in this part of the West Indies, can boast of so many excellent harbours.

harbours. Of these, the principal are English Harbour and Saint John's, both well fortified ; and at the former, the British government has established a royal navy yard and arsenal, and conveniences for careening ships of war.

The military establishment generally consists of two regiments of infantry, and two of foot militia. There is likewise a squadron of dragoons, and a battalion of artillery, both raised in the island, and the regulars receive additional pay, as in Jamaica.

The Governor or Captain-general of the leeward Charribbee islands, although directed by his instructions to visit occasionally each territory within his government, is generally stationary at Antigua, where his court, as Chancellor, is commonly held. In causes arising in Antigua, he is assisted by the council, and the president with a certain number of the council are empowered to determine Chancery causes during his absence, but in cases arising in other islands within his government he sits alone. The other courts are the King's Bench, the Common Pleas, and the Exchequer. The legislature is composed of the commander-in-chief, a council of twelve members, and an assembly of twenty-five.

The population is white 3200, free persons of colour 1400, slaves 36,000.

MONTSERRAT. This little island was discovered at the same time with St. Christopher's, and derived its name from a supposed resemblance which Columbus perceived in the face of the country, to a mountain of the same name near Barcelona. The name was all that was bestowed upon it by the Spaniards. Like Nevis, it was first planted by a small colony from St. Christopher's, detached in 1632 from the adventurers under Warner. Their separation appears indeed to have been partly occasioned by local attachments and religious dissensions ; which rendered the situation in St. Christopher's uneasy to those who were natives of Ireland, and of the Romish persuasion : the number of the original seceders from St. Christopher's was augmented by many of the same country and religion. The history of this little island contains nothing remarkable. It was invaded by the French in 1712, and suffered so much from their depredations, that an article was inserted in the treaty of Utrecht for appointing commissioners to enquire into the damages. It was again invaded, and with most of the other islands captured by the French in the American war, and restored with the rest.

Montserrat is about three leagues in length, and as many in breadth, and is supposed to contain about thirty thousand acres, of which almost two thirds are mountainous or barren. The land

land in cultivation is appropriated nearly as follows. In sugar, six thousand acres; in cotton, provisions, and pasturage, two thousand each.

The council consists of six members, and the assembly of eight, two from each of the four districts into which it is divided.

The population is 444 whites, 200 free persons of colour, and 10,000 slaves.

DOMINICA.

THE island of Dominica was so named by Columbus, because it was discovered on Sunday (Nov. 3. 1493). In 1759, it fell by conquest under the dominion of Great Britain, and was confirmed to the British crown, by the treaty of Paris, in Feb. 1763. Although Dominica had, until that time, been considered as a neutral island, many subjects of France had established coffee plantations, and other settlements; and it reflects honour on the British administration, that these people were secured in their possessions, on condition of taking the oaths of allegiance, and paying a small quit-rent. The rest of the cultivable land was ordered to be sold by commissioners nominated for that purpose, and no less than 94,346 acres (comprehending one half of the island) were accordingly disposed of by auction, in allotments from fifty to one hundred acres, yielding 312,092*l.* sterling. During the American war the island was taken by the French, and the sufferings of the inhabitants under a five years' tyranny reflect everlasting dishonour on the name of the invaders. To the inexpressible joy of the people they were restored to the blessings of British government in 1783.

Dominica contains 186,436 acres of land, and is divided into ten parishes. The town of *Roseau*, the capital, is situated in the parish of Saint George, being about seven leagues from Prince Rupert's bay. It is on a point of land on the S. W. side of the island, which forms two bays, Woodbridge's bay to the north, and Charlotte-ville bay to the southward. *Roseau* is about half a mile in length, from Charlotte-ville to *Roseau* river, and mostly two furlongs in breadth, but less in some parts, being of a very irregular figure. It contains not more than five hundred houses, exclusive of the cottages occupied by the negroes. Before its capture by the French it contained upwards of one thousand, but long after the surrender it was set on fire by them, from mixed motives of hatred and rapacity, and 500 houses burnt.

This island is twenty-nine miles in length, and may be reckoned sixteen in breadth; it contains many high and rugged

mountains interspersed with fine vallies, and in general they appear to be fertile. Several of the mountains contain volcanoes, which frequently discharge vast quantities of burning sulphur. From those mountains also issue springs of hot water, some of which are supposed to possess great virtue in the cure of tropical disorders. In some places the water is said to be hot enough to coagulate an egg. Dominica has upward of thirty fine rivers, beside rivulets. The soil in the interior country is generally a light-brown-coloured mould, and appears to have been washed from the mountains. Toward the sea coast, and in many of the vallies, it is a deep, black, and rich native earth, and seems well adapted to the cultivation of all the articles of West Indian produce. The under stratum is in some parts a yellow or brick clay, in others a stiff terrace, but in most places very stony.

Sugar does not succeed in this island so well as coffee, which is considered its staple; it also produces cacao, indigo, and ginger. The forests afford an inexhaustible quantity of rose-wood, so esteemed by cabinet makers. The fruits and other productions are similar to those in the neighbouring islands; but the soil being generally thin, is more adapted to the rearing of cotton than sugar. The best eye stones that are known are found on the shores of this island. They have their name from the use which is made of them, for clearing the eyes of any dirt. They are shaped like a lentil, smooth and sleek, but much smaller and of a grey colour.

The island is divided into ten parishes; St. John, St. Andrew, St. Peter, St. Joseph, St. Paul, St. David, St. George, St. Patrick, St. Luke, and St. Martin. It is a separate government and a free port.

Its population is 800 whites, 1,500 free persons of colour, and 24000 slaves.

WINDWARD ISLANDS.

IN this division each island with its dependencies, if any, forms a separate government, and each is therefore to be noticed severally.

SAINT LUCIA.

THIS island received its name from the French, having been discovered on the day devoted to that saint. The English effected a settlement in 1637; but meeting with various misfortunes

tunes from the natives and the French, it was agreed between the latter and the English that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. Before the war of 1756 the French had begun to settle the islands, and, by the treaty of 1763, the other two were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. It was captured in the American war, but restored in 1783; retaken in 1794; evacuated in 1795; again captured in 1796; restored by the treaty of Amiens; again subdued soon after the renewal of hostilities in 1803, and finally ceded to the British crown in 1814.

It is twenty-seven miles long and twelve broad, lying six leagues south of Martinico, and twenty-one north-west of Barbadoes. It has several hills, two of which, being very round and steep, are called the Pins' Heads of St. Lucy, and were volcanoes. At the foot of them are fine vallies, with a good soil and well watered. In these are tall trees, with the timber of which the planters of Martinico and Barbadoes build their houses and windmills. Here is also plenty of cocoa and fustic. The air is reckoned healthy, the hills not being so high as to intercept the trade-winds, which always fan it from the east, by which means the heat of the climate is moderated and rendered agreeable. In St. Lucia are several commodious bays and harbours, with good anchorage, particularly the little Carenage; one of the principal inducements for the French to prefer it to the other neutral islands. This port has several noted advantages; there is every where sufficient depth, and the quality of the bottom is excellent. Nature has formed three careening-places which do not want a key, and require nothing but a capstern to turn the keel above ground. Thirty ships of the line might lie there sheltered from the hurricanes without being moored. For the other harbours the winds are always good to go out with, and the largest squadron might be in the offing in less than an hour. There are nine parishes in the island; eight to the leeward, and only one to the windward. The preference to the leeward part of the island does not proceed from the superiority of the soil, but from the greater or less conveniency in sending out or receiving ships. A high-road is made round the island, and two others, which cross it from east to west, afford ample facilities to carry the commodities of the plantations to the barcaderes, or landing-places.

The population is, whites 500, free persons of colour 350, slaves 24,000.

BARBADOES.

THIS island was probably discovered by the Portuguese in their voyages from Brazil, and from them received its name. It was found without occupants or claimants. The Charribs, for reasons unknown, had deserted it, and the Portuguese, satisfied with the splendid regions they had acquired on the continent, seem to have considered it of little value. Having furnished it with a breed of swine for the benefit of such of their countrymen as might navigate the same tract, they left the island in all other respects as they found it. Of the English, the first who are known to have landed were the crew of a ship called the *Olive Blossom*, bound from London to Surinam, in 1605; they took possession of the country by fixing up a cross on the spot where *James Town* was afterward built, inscribed, "James, King of England and this Island;" but they began no settlement, nor made any considerable stay. Some years after this an English ship, returning from Brazil, was driven by stress of weather into this island, and finding refreshments, the master and seamen, on their arrival in England, made so favourable a report of the beauty and fertility of the country, that Lord Ley (afterwards Earl of Marlborough and Lord High Treasurer) obtained from James the First a grant of the island to himself and his heirs in perpetuity. From this period a regular colonization began, and, although the interests of the island were greatly injured by absurd grants and arbitrary revocations of them, still it advanced in population and prosperity, the emigrants, during the unhappy rebellion in the seventeenth century, amounting, as it is said, to 20,000 persons. After the restoration, Charles II. acknowledged the zeal and loyalty of these gentlemen by creating thirteen of them baronets; but, at the same time, the claims of patentees in former reigns, and their assigns and lessees, occasioned considerable disputes. The heirs of the Earls of Marlborough and Carlisle, Lord Willoughby of Parham, and some creditors of the Earl of Carlisle, all advanced repugnant claims, while the planters contended that they were subjects of the king alone, offered at their own cost to void the patents which had been illegally granted, and were also forfeited for non-user, and gave hints of their willingness to furnish a revenue to the crown. To satisfy the several claimants, and secure a perpetual income, was a work of difficulty, and its accomplishment seems to have been the sole aim of the king's ministers, by whom, after a tedious but partial investigation, (considering the colony as wholly at the king's

king's mercy,) it was finally ordered, that the Lord Willoughby should immediately repair to his government, and insist on the grant and establishment by the assembly of a permanent and irrevocable duty of *four and a half per cent.*, to be paid in specie, on all dead commodities, the growth of the island, shipped to any port of the world; the money arising therefrom to be applied as follows: first, toward an honourable and immediate provision for the Earl of Kinnoul, who was to surrender the Carlisle patent to the crown; secondly, toward satisfaction and full discharge of the Earl of Marlborough's annuity; thirdly, it was stipulated that the surplus should be divided equally between the creditors of the Earl of Carlisle and the Lord Willoughby, during the term yet unexpired of His Lordship's lease. On the expiration of this term the remainder, after providing 1200*l.* *per annum* for the king's governor for the time being, was ordered to be paid among the said creditors, till their demands were fully satisfied and discharged; and fourthly, on the extinction of those several incumbrances, the whole revenue, subject to the charge of 1200*l.* *per annum* to the governor, was to be at the disposal of the crown. This arrangement, although neither satisfactory nor just toward the planters, was finally acquiesced in, and became the foundation of the four and a half per cent. duty generally paid throughout the West Indies.

The loyalty of these islands gave such offence to Cromwell, that, after a powerful squadron under Ayscue had with great difficulty reduced them to a capitulation in 1651, the Protector determined immediately to enforce a scheme, projected a short time before, of altering the whole system of the Barbadian commerce, by prohibiting, by an act of the commonwealth, all foreign shipping from trading with the English plantations, and not permitting any goods to be imported into England or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or in ships of that European nation of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth and manufacture. Thus arose the famous Navigation Act of this kingdom; for, immediately after the restoration, its provisions were adopted by Charles the Second, with this addition, that the master and three-fourths of the mariners should also be English subjects.

Barbadoes is situated in 13° 10' north latitude, and in longitude 59° west from London. It is about twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth, and contains 106,470 acres of land, most of which is under cultivation. The soil in the lowlands is black, somewhat reddish in the shallow parts; on the hills, of a chalky marl, and near the sea generally sandy. Of this variety of soil the black mould is best suited for the cultivation

vation of the cane, and, with the aid of manure, has given as great returns of sugar in favourable seasons as any in the West Indies, the prime lands of St. Kitt's excepted. That the soil of this island is, to a great degree, naturally fertile, must be admitted, if credit is given to the accounts which are transmitted of its ancient population and opulence. We are assured that, about the year 1670, Barbadoes could boast of 50,000 white, and upwards of one hundred thousand black inhabitants, whose labours, it is said, gave employment to sixty thousand tons of shipping. This account is probably much exaggerated. It cannot, however, be doubted that the inhabitants of this island have decreased with a rapidity seldom known in any other country. By returns of the number of its whites in 1724, and of its negroes in 1753, the former consisted of 18,295; the latter of 69,870. In 1786 the numbers were, 16,167 whites, 838 free people of colour, and 62,115 negroes. It appears, too, that the annual produce of this island (particularly sugar) has decreased in a much greater proportion than in any other of the colonies. That the dreadful succession of hurricanes, with which it has pleased the Almighty to visit this and the other islands, has contributed to this defalcation, cannot be doubted. The capital of this island was scarcely risen from the ashes to which it had been reduced by two dreadful fires, when it was torn from its foundations, and the whole country made a scene of desolation, by the storm of the 10th of October 1780, in which no less than four thousand three hundred and twenty-six of the inhabitants (blacks and whites) miserably perished, and the damage to the country was computed at 1,320,564*l.* 15*s.* sterling. It might have been presumed, however, from the favourable seasons which were afterward experienced, that the prospect was at length beginning to brighten; but although, since the failure of their sugar plantations, the inhabitants have found some resource in the cultivation of cotton, it does not seem probable that any encouragement is capable of restoring this island to its ancient splendour and opulence.

Barbadoes is divided into five districts, and eleven parishes; and contains four towns, Bridgetown, Oistins or Charles Town, St. James's (formerly called the Hole), and Speight's Town. *Bridgetown*, the capital, before it was destroyed by the fires of 1766, consisted of about fifteen hundred houses, which were mostly built of brick; and it is still the seat of government, and may be called the chief residence of the governor, who is provided with a country villa called Pilgrims, situated within a mile of it: his salary was raised by Queen Anne from twelve hundred to two thousand pounds per annum, the whole

whole of which is paid out of the exchequer, and charged to the account of the four and a half per cent. duty. The council is composed of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-two. The governor is sole chancellor. The courts of grand sessions, common pleas, and exchequer, are distinct from each other.

The present population is said to be, whites 15,000, free persons of colour 3000, and slaves 59,506.

SAINT VINCENT'S.

THE Spaniards bestowed the name of St. Vincent upon this island, because they discovered it on the 22d of January, which in the calendar is dedicated to that saint; but it does not appear that they were ever, properly speaking, in possession of it: the Indians being very numerous, on account of its being the rendezvous of their expeditions to the continent. Unfortunately, however, neither their numbers, nor the natural strength of the country, exempted them from hostility. What avarice had in vain attempted, accident accomplished, by procuring a race of people, whom, though at first beheld by the native Charribs with contempt or pity, they have since found formidable rivals and merciless conquerors. These people have been long distinguished, however improperly, by the name of *Black Charribs*. Toward the end of the seventeenth century, a ship from Guinea, with a large cargo of slaves, was either wrecked or run on shore at St. Vincent's, into the woods and mountains of which great numbers of the negroes escaped. Here, whether willingly or unwillingly is a little uncertain, the Indians suffered them to remain, and partly by the accession of runaway slaves from Barbadoes, partly by the children they had by the Indian women, they became very numerous; so that early in the eighteenth century they constrained the Indians to retire into the north-west part of the island. The French, in hopes of gaining the island, were induced in 1719 to send forces to aid the red Charribs; but these people rendering no assistance to their allies, the blacks compelled them to retire with great loss. Another attempt to gain possession was made by the English in 1723, but with no better success. For the next forty years, the country became a theatre of savage hostilities between the Negroes and the red Charribs, in which the latter were nearly extirpated; but the victors adopted most of the Charribean manners and customs.

By

By the peace of 1763, the island became vested in Great Britain; and the first measure of government was to dispose of a great portion of the land at a very easy rate. The Charribs, instigated by the French, gave some trouble, but were subdued, and gave up part of the territory they claimed; but in 1779, the island being invaded by the French, the fear of these internal enemies joined with other causes in producing an early surrender. It was restored in 1783, and the possession of it has since been uninterrupted.

The government of St. Vincent has attached to it eight small islands, called *Union*, containing 2150 acres; *Bequia*, 3700; *Canouane*, 1777; *Mustique*, 1200; besides the smaller islands of *Petit St. Vincent*, *Petit Martinique*, *Maillereau*, and *Balleseau*, each of which produces some cotton. It is somewhat remarkable, that this island has never in any injurious degree been visited by those violent tornadoes or hurricanes, which have so frequently devastated the neighbouring islands, and so often been fatal to Jamaica.

St. Vincent's contains about 84,000 acres, which are every where well watered, but the country is generally mountainous and rugged; the intermediate vallies, however, are fertile in a high degree, the soil consisting chiefly of a fine mould, composed of sand and clay, well adapted for sugar. The extent of country at present possessed by British subjects is 23,605 acres, and about as much is supposed to be held by the Charribs. All the remainder is thought to be incapable of cultivation or improvement.

The island, or rather the British territory within it, is divided into five parishes, of which only one was provided with a church. There is one town called *Kingston*, the seat of government, and three villages that bear the name of towns, but are inconsiderable hamlets.

The council consists of twelve members, the assembly of seventeen. The governor's salary is two thousand pounds sterling; one half of which is raised within the island, the other half is paid him out of the exchequer of Great Britain.

The inhabitants are 1280 whites, 1172 free people of colour, and 27,156 slaves.

GRENADA.

GRENADA was discovered and named by Columbus in his third voyage, in 1498. He found it possessed by a numerous and warlike people, amongst whom it does not appear that the Spaniards

Spaniards ever attempted to force a settlement. They happily remained in peaceful obscurity until 1650, when Du Parquet, the French governor of Martinico, fitted out at his own charge an expedition against this island; and, as the history of the achievement is written by a priest named Du Tertre, barbarity and superstition are emblazoned in their strongest colours. A predatory expedition against a harmless race, unknown to their invaders, began by the administration of the holy sacrament of our Lord's supper to all the individuals engaged, and on their arrival at the scene of their intended robbery and butchery, the cross was set up and ceremonies termed religious, but in reality a mockery of religion, were performed. Contrary to the wish of the French, the natives received them with so much hospitality and kindness, that no pretence for hostility could be found. Du Parquet therefore contrived, under the semblance of presents, to give the natives some knives, hatchets, a few glass beads, and to the chiefs two bottles of brandy; and in consideration of this trash, he asserted that he had fairly purchased the island. The Charribs denying the cession, furnished the desired pretext for butchery; and in a short time they were all, without distinction of age or sex, savagely murdered; and the French having reduced the island to a desert, it continued but thinly peopled until conquered by Great Britain in 1762. It was ceded to this crown by the treaty of 1763, and after being conquered by D'Estaing in the American war, was restored in 1783.

Grenada contains about 80,000 acres of land; of which although no less than 72,141 acres paid taxes in 1776, yet the quantity actually cultivated has never exceeded 50,000 acres. The face of the country is mountainous, but not inaccessible in any part, and it abounds with springs and rivulets. On the whole, Grenada appears to be fertile in a high degree, and by the variety, as well as excellence, of its returns, seems adapted to every tropical production.

This island is divided into six parishes, St. George, St. David, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, St. Mark, and St. John; and its chief dependency, *Cariacou*, forms a seventh parish. It is only since the restoration of Grenada to Great Britain by the peace of 1783, that an island law has been obtained for the establishment of a Protestant clergy. This act passed in 1784, and provided stipends of 330*l.* currency, and 60*l.* for house-rent per annum, for five clergymen; viz. one for the town and parish of St. George, three for the other five out-parishes of Grenada, and one for *Cariacou*. Beside these stipends, there

there are valuable glebe lands, which had been appropriated to the support of the Roman Catholic priesthood, while that was the established religion.

The capital of Grenada is called *St. George*; its French name was *Fort Royal*. It is situated in a spacious bay, on the west or lee side of the island, not far from the south end: it possesses one of the safest and most commodious harbours for shipping in the English West Indies, which has been lately fortified at a great expence. The other towns are, properly speaking, inconsiderable villages or hamlets, generally situated at the bays or shipping places in the several out-parishes. Grenada has two ports of entry, with separate establishments, and distinct revenue officers; one at *St. George*, the capital, and one at *Grenville Bay*, a town or harbour on the east or windward side of the island.

The governor's salary is 3200*l.* currency per annum, which is raised by a poll-tax on all slaves; and it is the practice in Grenada to pass a salary bill on the arrival of every new governor. In all cases of absence beyond twelve months, the salary ceases. The council consists of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-six. A freehold of fifty acres is a qualification to sit as representative for the parishes, and a freehold of fifty pounds house-rent in *St. George* qualifies a representative for the town. An estate of ten acres in fee, or for life, or a rent of ten pounds in any of the out-towns, gives a vote for the representatives of each parish respectively; and a yearly rent of twenty pounds issuing out of any freehold or life estate in the town of *St. George* gives a vote for the town.

The law courts in Grenada, besides those of Chancery and Ordinary, are, first, the Court of Grand Session of the Peace, held each year in March and September. In this court the first person named in the commission of the peace presides, who is usually the president or senior in council. 2dly. The Court of Common Pleas, consisting of one chief and four assistant justices, whose commissions are during pleasure. The chief-justice is usually appointed in England, a professional man, with a salary of 600*l.* per annum. The four assistant justices are usually appointed by the governor from among the gentlemen of the island, and act without salary. 3dly. The Court of Exchequer. The barons in this court are commissioned in like manner as in the Court of Common Pleas. 4thly. The Court of Admiralty, for trial of all prize causes in war, and revenue seizures in peace or war: it has one judge and one surrogate. Lastly, The governor and council compose a Court of Error, for trying appeals from the Court of Common Pleas.

It

It has been observed, that the population, both in white people and those of colour, was on the decline in this island. The whites were formerly 1600; they are now stated to be 800: the free people of colour are 1600, and the slaves 32,603.

The dependencies on Grenada, called the Grenadines, are a cluster of small islands, none of which are entitled to notice except *Cariacou*. This isle is situated four leagues from the north end of Grenada. It contains 6913 acres of fertile and well cultivated land, producing about a million lbs. of cotton, besides corn, yams, potatoes, and plantains for the negroes. It has a town called *Hillborough*.

TOBAGO.

THIS island, when in the hands of the Dutch, was called *New Valcheren*. It is about ten leagues to the north of Trinidad, and forty south of Barbadoes. Its length is about thirty-two miles, but its breadth only about twelve, and its circumference about eighty miles. The climate is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to other islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of cinnamon, nutmeg, and gumcopal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and rivers are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who obstinately defended their pretensions against both England and France. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; by that of 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain: in June, 1781, it was taken by the French; ceded to them by the treaty of 1783; and captured by the British in 1793; restored at the peace of Amiens; but being recaptured in 1803, was definitively ceded by the treaty of 1814. This island, above all others in the West Indies under the British crown, perhaps, admits of the most improvement. It differs from every other, inasmuch as it is cultivatable throughout, although not half is yet in a state of cultivation. The soil is deep and rich; the hills are covered with woods, and rivers descending from them run through every valley into the sea.

There is annexed to it, near its northern extremity, a small isle called *Little Tobago*.

Tobago

Tobago is stated to contain 100,000 acres, of which 40,000 are cultivated. The population is 470 white persons, 250 free, and 17,000 proprietary persons of colour.

TRINIDAD.

THE account of this island is derived entirely from Mr. Colquhoun's Treatise on the Wealth, Power, and Resources of the British Empire.

The island of Trinidad was discovered by Columbus in 1498. It is about ninety miles in length, and fifty in breadth. In 1595 it was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh; and in 1676 by the French, who plundered and left it. It remained afterwards under the dominion of Spain, inhabited however by a mixture of several nations, until the year 1797, when it was captured by the British, and was afterwards ceded in perpetuity to this country by the treaty of Amiens in 1801. It abounds with resources calculated to render it a most valuable colony. The soil is rich in many parts. There is an almost endless variety of timber, some of which has grown to an immense size; and much of the wood is extremely beautiful, and well adapted for cabinet work. The island produces sugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, of a fine quality, Indian corn, and every species of ground provisions peculiar to the West Indies, with a great variety of fruits. It has a lake, composed of a substance similar to pitch, apparently possessing all the properties of that resin, which is considered as an extraordinary phenomenon. This fine island only requires an extensive and industrious white population to render it among the richest and most productive countries in the world; since every article of superior value, in a commercial point of view, produced in tropical climates, may be here cultivated to great advantage. Provisions, equal to the consumption of a very extensive population, may be raised at much less labour than in northern countries, and vast herds of cattle may be reared and fed. Much of the timber might also be converted into an important article of commerce.

The jurisprudence of this colony is still regulated by the Spanish laws; and the Governor and Council, appointed by the Crown, legislate for the people, as far as legislation is necessary. Indeed, when it is considered that the British adult population is only 761, and the foreign white inhabitants 1129, the colony has not yet reached the maturity which may be necessary for the introduction of the British constitution and laws.

The

The produce of sugar and rum may be increased when labourers can be procured: the inferior staples of coffee, cocoa, cotton, tobacco, ginger, pimento, and the minor articles of castor-oil, arrow-root, tamarinds, dye, and ornamental woods, Indian corn and Guinea corn, buck wheat, yams, sweet potatoes, plantains, hogs, poultry, and Guinea grafs for pasturing cattle, might, in the lands and woods of Trinidad, be largely produced, without any great labour.

This extensive and fine island has shared in the disasters to which many other colonies have been subject. In the year 1809, the extensive town of *Port of Spain* (the capital of the island), chiefly built of wood, was nearly destroyed by a dreadful fire, which consumed all or most of the public edifices, and reduced the inhabitants to the greatest distress. Toward their relief, and for the purposes of rebuilding the public edifices, Parliament liberally granted 50,000*l.* sterling, in the years 1811 and 1812. The town has since been rebuilt with stone, of which the island furnishes abundance, and which, it is to be hoped, may prevent the recurrence of a similar calamity. Although this valuable island was in the hands of the Spaniards nearly three hundred years, yet it may still be considered in its infancy. The state of this colony, in population and agriculture, &c. according to an official return made on the 31st of December, 1811, by order of the local government, stood thus:—

White population	-	-	2617
Free people of colour	-	-	7043
Indians	-	-	1716
Negro labourers	-	-	21143
			32519
Free Africans	-	-	111
Increase, as by an annexed Table			460
			33090

The acres of land cultivated and granted are as follow: in sugar, 10,790; cotton, 1262; provisions, 5726; pasturage, 9497; granted, 147,548; total, 174,823.

POSSESSIONS ON THE CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. The British settlements on this continent are Demerary and Essequibo, Berbice and Surinam.

They formed together what used to be called Dutch America, or Dutch Guiana. This territory is bounded north by the Atlantic ocean, east by Cayenne, south by an unexplored country called Amazonia, and west by Oronoko, a Spanish settlement. It lies between 5° and 7° north latitude, extending along the coast from the mouth of the Oronoko river to the river Marowyne. It is divided into three distinct governments, Surinam, Berbice, Essequibo and Demerary; the last being two districts which form one government.

RIVERS. A number of fine rivers pass through this province; the chief of which are Essequibo, Surinam, Demerary, Berbice, and Canje. *Essequibo* is 21 miles wide at its mouth, and is more than 300 miles in length. *Surinam* river is three quarters of a mile wide at its mouth, navigable for the largest vessels twelve miles, and for smaller vessels sixty or seventy miles further. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the prospects very delightful. The entrance is guarded by a fort and two redoubts, but not of any great strength. At six miles up, the *Commawine* falls into it, and on the point of land between the two rivers are the forts. *Demerary* is about two miles wide at its mouth, opposite the fort, which is on the east bank of the river, and about forty-five miles distant from Abary Creek. Twelve miles above the fort it is scarcely a mile wide, and its course is from south to north. It is navigable upwards of two hundred miles for vessels which can pass the bar at its mouth, which is a mud bank, not having above twenty-four feet at the highest tides. The difference between high and low water-mark is from ten to twelve feet. *Berbice*, otherwise called *Berben*, is a quarter of a mile broad, and two fathoms deep at its mouth. The land on both sides is low and woody. The *Canje* is a fine river, and navigable for colony schooners thirty miles up; it runs nearly in an easterly direction; at the head of it are immense falls and cataracts: about forty miles below these is a creek, which connects itself with the Courantyne, through which overland dispatches are brought from Surinam to Berbice by the Indians.

CLIMATE. In the months of September, October and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to strangers. The common diseases are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ache, and the dropfy. Along the sea coast the water is brackish and unwholesome; the air damp and sultry. The thermometer ranges from 75 to 90 through the year. One hundred miles back from the sea is quite a different soil, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholesome air, where a fire sometimes would not be disagreeable. A north-east breeze never fails

fails to blow from about nine o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hottest seasons; and as the days and nights, throughout the year, are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants so greatly incommoded by its warmth, as those who live at a greater distance from the equator. The seasons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years so much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free passage is opened for the air and vapours. The water of the lower parts of the rivers is brackish, and unfit for use; and the inhabitants are obliged to preserve rain water, which is uncommonly sweet and good.

NATIVES. The country adjacent to the settlements is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmless, friendly race. They are, in general, short of stature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, straight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses, and hair, the women wear ornaments of silver and other metals, or shining materials. Both men and women go naked. Their language appears to be very soft. They are averse to every kind of labour; but manufacture a few articles, such as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water-pots, baskets, a red or yellow dye called roucau, and some other trifles, all which they bring to town and exchange for such things as they stand in need of. They paint themselves red, and some are curiously figured with black. Their food consists chiefly of fish and crabs, and cassava, of which they plant great quantities; and this is almost the only produce they attend to. They cannot be said to be absolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few cross sticks, covered with branches, so as to defend them from the rain and sun, they frequently quit their habitations, and establish them elsewhere. They do not shun the whites, and have been serviceable against the runaway negroes.

AGRICULTURE. One system of agriculture prevails in all parts. On each side of the rivers and creeks are situated the plantations, containing from 500 to 2000 acres each, in number about 550 in the whole colony, producing sugar, coffee, cocoa, and cotton. In the forests are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and some woods for ornamental purposes, particularly a kind of mahogany, called copic. The soil is perhaps as fertile, and luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, clayey earth, lying in some places above the level of the rivers at high water (which rises about eight feet), and in most places below it. Whenever, from a continual course of cultivation for many years, a piece of land

becomes impoverished (for manure is not known here), it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility; and, in the mean time, a new piece of woodland is cleared. This country has never experienced those dreadful scourges of the West Indies, hurricanes; and droughts, from the lowness of the lands, it has not to fear; nor has the produce ever been destroyed by insects, or by the blast. The rivers abound with fish, some of which are good; at certain seasons of the year, there is plenty of turtle. The woods afford plenty of deer, hares, and rabbits; a kind of buffalo, and two species of wild hogs. They are infested with several species of tigers, but with no other destructive animals. The rivers are rendered unsafe by alligators from four to seven feet long. Scorpions and tarantulas are found, of a large size, and great venom; and other insects without number, some of them very dangerous and troublesome; also, the torporific eel, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand, or any conductor, has the effect of a strong electrical shock. There are serpents, of which some are venomous, and others, as has been asserted by many credible persons, are from 25 to 50 feet long. In the woods are the sloth, monkeys, and parrots, in all their varieties; also some birds of beautiful plumage, among others, the flamingo; but few or no singing birds.

These general particulars applying to all, only a slight notice of each government will be necessary.

DEMERARY AND ESSEQUIBO. These form one government. The capital, *Stabroek*, the political metropolis, and principal seat of exchange for produce, of all the countries adjacent to the Demerary and Essequibo, is situated on the east side of the river Demerary. Its site is low and level. It has an oblong form, being about a quarter of a mile broad and a mile long. The principal streets are quite strait, with carriage roads. The middle street, leading from the King's stelling, is paved with bricks, and has lamps on each side; another public stelling, or wharf (beside several that are private), is kept purposely in order for landing and shipping goods. A navigable canal on each side of the town, which fills and empties with the tide, affords the same convenience to those houses which are not situated near the water side. There are no taverns or lodging-houses, but the merchants receive, with great hospitality, strangers who come to them properly recommended. The building of this town was begun in 1774.

The first settlement on the banks of Essequibo was formed in 1698, but, owing to an erroneous idea that the land adjacent to the sea was too low and swampy for cultivation, it was commenced on the higher land, nearly one hundred miles from the

the mouth of the river, at a spot where the soil was by no means so favourable. The land was granted gratis, under express stipulations that a certain portion should be under cultivation in a given time, with the farther inducement of a larger grant, should the terms of the first have been complied with; and, as a punishment for non-compliance, a fine was to be levied, which, if not paid, the lands and improvements were to be sold. A governor was appointed, and a conditional code of laws given by the West India Company of Holland, subject to the approbation of the States General. So little progress, however, was then made in the improvement of the colonies, that, in the American war, they were taken by an English privateer, and recaptured by a French corvette. At the peace, in 1783, they returned into the possession of the Dutch; they were captured in 1796, and remained in the hands of the English, until restored at the peace of Amiens; on the renewal of hostilities, they were again conquered; and at the general pacification, in 1814, were finally surrendered to Great Britain, and most reasonably so, for long possession, connexion, and the investment of capital, had rendered them far more English than Dutch.

The present population is stated to be 4,000 whites; 2,500 free persons of colour, and 70,000 slaves.

BERBICE. Berbice, according to the ancient limits, is bounded on the east by the Devil's Creek, and on the west by Abary Creek, which separates that colony from Demerary. The river Berbice is shallow, but broad; nearly a hundred plantations have been formed on its banks. The chief produce is sugar, but it also supplies cotton, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, and a dying stuff called roucau. The goods carried thither are the same as those traded with in the rest of the West Indies. The Dutch laid the foundations of this colony in the beginning of the seventeenth century. About the year 1626, one Van Peere, of Flushing, began to send ships, which carried out Europeans, who staid there to trade with the Indians, and collect produce. By the year 1690, the colony was so far increased, that the French, who made a hostile landing, could levy a contribution of 20,000 florins. This settlement was comprehended in the charter of the Dutch West India Company; but, in 1678, an arrangement was made with the family of Van Peere, who were in fact the founders and proprietors, by which it was granted to them as a perpetual and hereditary fief. This grant was confirmed in 1703, and was respected until 1712, when a flotilla of French privateers, under the command of one Cassard, went to attack the settlement. Baron Mouars commanded the troops who were landed, and who

agreed for a contribution of 300,000 florins; which was eventually discharged by the house of Van Hoorn and Co., in consideration of the cession of three-fourths of the concern, by the family of Van Peere. Under this company, the colony was cultivated with vigour and success. In Holland, its affairs were administered by seven directors, chosen by, and from among the share-holders. They received a yearly salary of 200 florins; and gave in their accounts to an annual meeting of proprietors, who named auditors.

The land adjacent to the sea being very low and marshy, the first settlers of this colony went fifty miles up the river, where they built a town and fortrefs, called Zelandica. As population began to increase, and cultivation extended, the inconvenience of being so far from the river's mouth, presented itself in various forms; and with a view of inducing vessels from Europe, with cargoes for Berbice, to anchor directly in the river, instead of going to Demerary, the seat of government was removed within a mile of the mouth of the river, to

New Amsterdam, which was the name given to the town, built on the south side of Canje river, running in that direction up the banks of the Berbice a mile and a half, with the houses facing the water. The Dutch, in laying out this town, paid every attention to health and convenience; each allotment appears an island within itself; the ditches, or trenches, round the houses, fill and empty themselves every tide, by which means all filth or dirt is carried off before it has time to stagnate, or occasion unhealthy effects. Each lot is a quarter of an acre of land, separated, as before mentioned, from the adjoining one; which not only leaves a free circulation of air, but allows to every house a kitchen-garden, producing vegetables sufficient for the family. The houses are different from those of Stabroeck, in this respect; they are not more than a story and a half high, very long and narrow, with galleries on either side for the purpose of walking and smoking in the shade. They are mostly covered with troolie and plantain leaves, a species of thatch, in preference to shingles, as being considered so much cooler; but the quantity of vermin and insects which they harbour does not permit Englishmen to use this covering, and their houses in New Amsterdam may be distinguished by being shingled. The government-house and attached buildings are laid out in a splendid manner; they are of brick, and built in the European style. The offices of the fiscal, receiver, and secretary, are situated behind the government-house, and built of brick. The fortifications are of no great import; Fort St. Andrew, and a small battery, guard the entrance of the river on the east side, and York redoubt on the
the

the opposite bank. There are two entrances into the river, one on each side of Crab Island, which is reserved by the colonial government for erecting a fort, that will completely command the passage into the river, and, being an island, will be more easily and better defended than the present fort. *Crab Island* is about two miles in circumference, and might be made a very defensible post; but that would not avail much, as the fate of Demerary will always govern that of Berbice, as troops from the former can at all times overrun the latter, and the convenient ferries, at all the creeks and rivers, would facilitate the passage of horses and carriages.

The free population is stated to be, whites 1000; people of colour, 600; the slaves are 25,000.

SURINAM. This colony was first possessed by the French as early as the year 1630, or 1640, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In 1650 it was taken up by some Englishmen, and in 1662 a charter was granted by Charles II. About this time, it was considerably augmented by the settlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whose descendants (with other Jews) compose at present one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch; and the English having got possession, about the same time, of the then Dutch colony of New York, each party retained its conquest. Most of the English planters retired to Jamaica, leaving their slaves behind them, whose language is still English, but so corrupted, as not at first to be understood by an Englishman.

Paramaribo, the chief town, supposed to be named from Lord Willoughby of Parham, governor of the settlement in the time of Charles the Second, contains about four hundred houses, on the bank of Surinam river, in a pleasant but unhealthy situation. The houses are of wood, tolerably convenient, erected on foundations of European bricks. Its port is five leagues from the sea, and has every convenience. It is the rendezvous of all the ships from the mother country, which come to receive the produce of the colony. The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any strength.

Surinam is peopled by 3186 whites; 2889 free persons of colour; and 60,000 slaves.

As the population of all these colonies is for the most part Dutch, their intercourse with the kingdom of the Netherlands is to a certain degree permitted, under regulations defined by the statute 56 Geo. III. c. 91.

Of the future importance of these possessions, it is impossible

fible to speak with certainty; but if the colonization were vigorously pursued, it must be immense, as the number of acres already in cultivation is stated at 1,500,000, and the quantity which might be so exceeds calculation.

FALKLAND'S ISLANDS.

NEAR the southern extremity of this continent are placed these despicable, uninhabited, unproductive rocks, worthy of notice only because they had, in the year 1770, nearly occasioned a war between this country and Spain; and enumerated here only because the British government, when they were evacuated, thought it worth while to retain a title to them, which they perpetuated by setting up an inscription on a metal plate.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

This name is given to the eastern part of New Holland, discovered in 1770 by Captain Cook, who sailed along the coast, a course, if laid down in a straight line, of no less than 27 degrees of latitude, amounting to nearly 2000 miles. Some suppose that the extensive region called New Holland, when more thoroughly investigated, will be found to consist of two, three, or more vast islands, intersected by narrow seas. However this be, the most recent and authentic charts indicate New Holland as a country fully entitled to the appellation of a continent. The length from east to west is about 43 degrees of longitude, in the medial latitude of 25° ; that is, about 2340 geographical miles, or 2730 British. The breadth from north to south extends from 11° to 39° ; being 28 degrees, 1680 geographical miles, or 1960 British. Europe, the smallest of the ancient continents, is supposed to be about 3300 British miles in its utmost length, and its greatest breadth 2350: so that Mr. Pennant rather exaggerates when he assimilates the size of Europe and Notasia; the latter being a quarter less than the former. But the proximity of so many large islands recompenses this defect; and the whole of Australasia will probably be found greatly to exceed the European continent. The discovery of this territory seems not to belong strictly to modern navigators, since it is laid down, although not defined, in a very old map, executed by John Rotz in 1542. It is probable, therefore, that the Spaniards and Portuguese had found the northern parts of New Holland more than a century before the pretended Dutch discoveries; but neither can interfere with

with the discovery of the south-east part by the immortal Cook. This illustrious navigator had carefully examined the coast, and justly deeming it of great importance, took possession of it in the name of the King of Great Britain in 1770. On the close of the American war, it being difficult to select a proper place of transportation for criminals sentenced to that punishment, this new territory was fixed on in 1786; and the first ship sailed from Spithead on the 30th of January, 1787, and arrived on the 20th of the same month in the following year. Botany Bay being found to be a less advantageous station than was expected, and no spot there appearing proper for the colony, Governor Phillip transferred it to another excellent inlet, about twelve miles further to the north, called Port Jackson; on the south side of which, at a spot called Sydney Cove, this settlement is now fixed. Port Jackson is one of the noblest harbours in the world, extending about fourteen miles in length, with numerous creeks or coves. This new colony experienced considerable difficulties in procuring subsistence; and the expence of conveying and maintaining the inhabitants was considered as too great for the object. But men, of more extensive and philosophical views, beheld with complacence the design of transferring the English race and name to such a distant and important region of the globe; they viewed it as an enterprise which might supply new objects to commerce and science, and, in time, present as it were a new country, of rising knowledge and civilization, in the midst of a benighted and savage region of the globe. Nor were hopes of ambition and glory undelighted with this new diffusion of the great and surprising people of a remote European isle, in the most distant extremities of the navigable ocean.

The persons who went out with Governor Phillip consisted of 800 convicts, and a portion of marines: with these were laid the foundation of the new settlement, which continued gradually to improve under his government, until the close of the year 1792. Numberless obstructions existed, during this early period, to check the growth of the colony; amongst the principal of which may be remarked: 1st, the discordant materials of which the settlement was to be constructed; 2dly, the disputes with the natives; and, 3dly, the occasional pressure of want, which, for a long time, was unavoidable, on account of the remoteness of the colony from Europe. The continual disorders amongst the convicts, which no lenity could alluage, no severity effectually check, were injurious to the prosperity of the colony, whose true interests required a combination of reciprocal confidence and mutual exertion. It was not to the commission of depredations upon each other that the restless
and

and dishonest dispositions of the convicts confined themselves; even the poor and miserable natives were made the dupes of a system of knavery which they could not penetrate; and their spears, their shields, their canoes, and their persons, were equally exposed to the violence of the new settlers. It was easy to foresee the consequences of such conduct: the natives at first discovered symptoms of justifiable reserve; they subsequently adopted measures of an hostile complexion, and several unfortunate convicts were found murdered in the woods. In vain did the governor issue order after order, and proclamation after proclamation; insults still continued to be offered to the natives, and such acts of retaliation ensued as circumstances would allow. Governor Phillip himself was wounded by a spear, which one of the savages threw at him, under the influence of a momentary apprehension. Scarcity, while it could not be effectually removed, produced the most pernicious effects; it relaxed the sinews of industry, where it did exist, or strengthened the pretexts of indolence: when men were reduced from a plentiful allowance to a weekly ration, which scarcely sufficed to preserve existence; when the store-houses were almost empty of provisions, and the boundless ocean presented no object of relief, and when the busy mind painted to itself the dangers inseparable from the length of the voyage which might delay or prevent the arrival of succours, the inclination to laborious exertion became entirely suspended; the progress of the settlement toward maturity was necessarily retarded, and the operations which proceeded, at these periods of general debility, moved with discouraging slowness and languor. Yet, even under these disadvantages, the settlement had been scarcely established four years, before two towns were formed, and several social institutions shewed promises of future maturity.

Governor Phillip sailed to England, on the 11th of December, 1792, when Lieutenant-Governor Grose succeeded to the government; and during his period, the improvements in the settlement assumed a more decisive and favourable aspect. The settlers were now enabled to sell corn to the public stores, which the commissary received directions to purchase, at a given price: passage-boats were licensed and established between the towns of Sydney and Paramatta; and the number of settlers rapidly increased. On the 15th of December, 1794, Lieutenant-Governor Grose left the colony for England, and Captain Paterson, of the New South Wales Corps, assumed the government, until the arrival of Governor Hunter, who came out in the *Reliance*, on the 7th of September, 1795.

One of the first acts of the new governor was the establishment

ment of a printing press ; the advantages of which soon became obvious, in the more ready communication of all orders for the regulation of the settlement.

The bulls and cows which had been originally brought over to the new continent, had, by the carelessness of their keeper, been suffered to stray into the woods, and all search after them had proved ineffectual until this period, when a fine and numerous herd of wild cattle was discovered in the interior of the country, which was evidently the progeny of the animals which had been so long lost to the colony. The protection of this wild herd, and its increase, became a matter of public interest, since it would serve as a valuable resource, in case of necessity ; and measures were accordingly adopted, to prevent any encroachment on that liberty which it had preserved above seven years.

In the commencement of 1796, a play-house was opened at Sydney, under the sanction of the governor. Toward the close of the same year, the houses in Sydney and Paramatta were numbered, and divided into portions, each of which was placed under the superintendence of a principal inhabitant. The county of Cumberland was assessed, a few months afterwards, for the erection of a county gaol. A town clock was also set up in Sydney, an accommodation which had been hitherto unknown. The natives had been, of late years, perfectly reconciled to their new countrymen ; and although their attachment to their accustomed habits and situations made them abstain from taking up new residences, and from mixing indiscriminately with the Europeans, they had become comparatively social, and commenced an intercourse which was calculated to rivet the prosperity of the colony. Many of the convicts had reformed their lives ; and, instead of being examples of depravity, had turned to habits of industry, and endeavoured to benefit society ; while the apprehensions of famine had been dispelled by agricultural improvements : the stock had increased wonderfully, the granaries and storehouses were amply supplied. The peace of the colony was threatened, however, in 1800, by the seditious conduct of a number of Irish convicts who had recently arrived. They had assembled frequently ; and a Roman Catholic priest, named Harold, who was discovered to be one of the instigators and originators of the scheme of insurrection, was taken into custody. Voluntary associations were embodied, and every measure of prudent precaution was promptly adopted. In September, 1800, Governor Hunter quitted the colony, having exercised the functions of government five years ; during which his attention to the interests of the settlement was unremitting, and his humanity and condescension rendered him inestimably

estimably dear to every one. The prudence, judgment, and care with which he had conducted himself, will be effectually shown by the comparative statement of the condition of the colony at the periods of his arrival and departure.

At the close of the year 1795, the public and private stock of the colony consisted of 57 horses and mares, 101 cows and cow-calves, 74 bulls and bull-calves, 52 oxen, 1531 sheep, 1427 goats, and 1869 hogs; and the poultry was exceedingly numerous. The total of the land in cultivation amounted to 5419 acres; but that which was sown was somewhat below 3000 acres. At this period the storehouses were exhausted so completely, that on the arrival of Governor Hunter, there were no salt provisions left, and the allowance of other food was much reduced. At the period of his departure, the live stock, in the public and private possession, amounted to 60 horses, 143 mares; 332 bulls and oxen, 712 cows; 2031 male sheep, 4093 females; 727 male goats, 1455 females; 4017 hogs. The quantity of land sown with wheat was 4666 acres, of Indian corn 2930, and of barley 82 acres. In New South Wales and Norfolk Island, the numbers of the colony had been swollen to the amount of 6000; and the general prosperity appeared rapidly increasing.

On the secession of Governor Hunter, the government devolved on Governor King. Soon after his accession, a quantity of copper coin was received from England and put into circulation. The prosperity of the colony continued progressive, although not without fluctuation, and occasional interruption from the injuries of nature. Among these may be reckoned an earthquake, frequent inundations of the Hawkesbury river, and thunder and hail-storms; the latter of which are peculiarly violent and destructive.

Early in 1804, the tranquillity of the colony experienced some interruption. Since the introduction of the Irish, discontent had taken root; the most unprincipled of the convicts, who were transported for sedition, cherishing the principles of their new companions, only waited for the maturity of their designs to commence the execution of schemes which involved the happiness and security of the whole colony. The operations of these disaffected persons had been conducted with such secrecy, that suspicion was baffled until the 4th of March in this year, when an insurrection broke out at Castle Hill, a settlement between Paramatta and Hawkesbury; and the insurgents expressed their determination to emancipate themselves, or perish in the struggle. Information of the extent and alarming appearance of this mutiny having reached the governor, it was deemed necessary, on the following day, to proclaim

claim martial law; and a party of the troops, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel George Johnston, was directed to pursue the rebels. After a long march, the military detachment came up with them near the Ponds, about half way between Paramatta and Hawkesbury, and after a short parley the colonel found it necessary to fire; and having killed several, and made prisoners of the principals who survived, the remainder made a rapid retreat. Ten of the leaders of this insurrection, who had been observed as particularly conspicuous and zealous in their endeavours to seduce the rest, were tried on the 8th of March, and convicted. Three were executed on the same evening at Paramatta, two on the following day at Sydney, and three at Castle Hill; the other two were respited, and, favourable circumstances appearing, finally pardoned. On the 9th, martial law was repealed. This little narrative assumes a sort of importance, as it commemorates the first warlike operation in New South Wales.

On the 12th of August, 1806, when Governor King was succeeded by Governor Bligh, the colony was in a state of growing prosperity; although the progress of cultivation was considerably retarded by frequent overflowings of the Hawkesbury, which never failed to produce extensive injury to the settlers on its banks. Some unfortunate differences between Governor Bligh and several of the principal settlers arose to such a height, that, in order to prevent an insurrection and all its dreadful consequences, his person was seized, and he was, for a time, imprisoned; Lieutenant-Colonel Johnston being obliged to take upon him the duties of government until His Majesty's pleasure should be known. Governor Bligh, who had been allowed to go on board a vessel of the royal navy, under a solemn engagement to return directly to England, thought it his duty to remain on the coast until orders came from home, by which he was, for form's sake, reinstated in the government, but immediately superseded by Colonel Macquarrie.

Such is the account of the progress of this interesting colony, derived principally from the publication of Mr. David Dickinson Mann; who, after many years residence, and serving in several public stations, published his account of New South Wales in 1811. At that time, according to the last muster taken by him officially, the land in cultivation was 6887 acres of wheat, 3390 of maize, 535 of barley, 93 of oats, 100 of peas and beans, 301 of potatoes, 13 of turnips, 546 of orchard and garden, and 35 of flax, hemp, and hops. The stock consisted of 411 male horses, 529 female ditto; 118 bulls, 5115 cows, 3771 oxen; 10,807 male, and 22,451 female sheep;

sheep; 936 male, and 2039 female goats; and 9820 male, and 9548 female pigs.

About the same time it appears that the number of inhabitants was as follows; —

Sydney district	-	-	-	6158
Paramatta	-	-	-	1807
Hawkesbury	-	-	-	2389
Newcastle	-	-	-	100
Total				10454

Of these 5513 are men, 2220 women, and 2721 children; and of these from one-fourth to one-fifth were convicts. The troops were in number 1100, and the remainder free persons. To these may be added, the settlements of *Port Dalrymple* and *Hobart's Town*, in Van Diemen's Land, about five degrees south of Sydney, containing 1321 inhabitants: and at the date of the last return, 177 were living in Norfolk Island; but orders had been sent out for its total abandonment.

The prices of provisions at the same period will serve to shew what necessaries and luxuries of life are found in New South Wales, as well as the facilities of procuring them. It should be premised, that the yearly wages for servants, with board, are ten pounds; weekly ditto, with provisions, six shillings; daily wages, with board, one shilling; and daily wages, without board, two shillings and sixpence.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS. Wheat, twelve shillings per bushel; maize, five shillings; barley, five shillings; oats, four shillings and sixpence; potatoes, ten shillings per cwt.; turnips, fourpence per bunch; carrots, sixpence per bunch; cabbages, three-pence each; lemons, sixpence per dozen; peaches, two-pence per dozen; apples, two shillings per dozen; pears, three shillings per dozen; strawberries, one shilling per quart; quinces, two shillings per dozen; water-melons, nine-pence each; musk and other melons, one shilling each; apricots, one shilling per dozen; mulberries, one shilling per quart; Cape gooseberries, eight-pence per quart; native currants, eight-pence per quart; oranges, raspberries, grapes, plums, almonds, pomegranates, limes, shaddocks, citrons, pine-apples, nectarines, and guavas, were at variable prices in proportion to their plenty or scarcity; cucumbers, one penny each; mushrooms, eight-pence per quart; French beans, four-pence per quart; onions, twenty shillings per cwt.; peas, one shilling per quart; beans, nine-pence per quart; asparagus, two shillings per hundred; artichokes, sixpence each; spinage, one shilling per dish; pumpkins, sixpence each; cauliflowers, sixpence each; brocoli, sixpence per dish; figs, three-pence per

per dozen; beet-root, lettuces, radishes, sallad of all kinds, horse-radish, samphire, water-creffes, celery, endive, and herbs of every description, were extremely plentiful, and to be purchased at reasonable rates.

Animal food was to be procured at the following prices: beef, 1s. 3d. per pound; mutton, 1s. 3d. per pound; pork, 1s. per pound; lamb, 1s. 3d. per pound; kangaroo, 8d. per pound; (the flesh of this animal is somewhat similar in taste to English beef, but rather inferior, owing to the want of fat); goat mutton, 1s. per pound; turkeys, 10s. each; ducks, 4s. each; Muscovy ducks, 5s. each; fowls, 2s. 6d. each; wild ducks, 2s. each; teal, 1s. 3d. each; rabbits, 4s. each; roasting pigs, 5s. each; pigeons, 1s. 3d. each; kids, 5s. each; eggs, 1s. 6d. per dozen; butter, 6s. per pound; milk, 1s. per quart; cheese, 2s. 6d. per pound; oysters, 1s. per quart; and lobsters, 1s. each.

Fish of every description are exceedingly numerous, very good, and at moderate prices.

The following is to be considered as a full weekly ration, which is issued from the stores whenever there is a sufficiency without a prospect of want, to those who are in the employ of government: seven pounds of salt-beef, or four pounds of salt-pork; eight pounds of flour or meal, or an addition of a quarter of a pound of wheat to each pound if it cannot be ground; peas or other pulse, three pounds; six ounces of sugar in lieu of butter. The same quantity is to be given by their employers to indented servants; but, as frequent alterations are necessary according to the pressure of circumstances, any deficiency is generally made up with maize.

MANUFACTURES AND TRADE. The manufactures which had been established were those of coarse woollen blanketting, coarse woollen called drugget, and some of a finer quality; leather, which is very well tanned, pottery, tobacco-pipes, salt, and beer. There are also corn-mills, shops of every description, and four auctioneers; and trade is encouraged by a general disposition to show, dissipation, and gaiety. The powers of such a territory, peopled by so small a number of men in proportion to its extent, cannot yet be even guessed at. The minerals it may contain are as yet unknown; but with the most ordinary of these, and abundance of excellent coal, it is impossible but that a numerous population, with British ingenuity, industry, and perseverance, must acquire wealth, and rise to importance.

NATIVES. From the accounts of various navigators, there is room to infer that this extensive tract is peopled by three or four races of men; those observed in the south-west being described

scribed as different from those in the north, and both from those in the east, with whom alone we are intimately acquainted. These are, perhaps, in the most early stage of society which has yet been discovered in any part of the globe. They are merely divided into families, the senior being styled Be-ana, or Father, which highest of their titles they also applied to Governor Phillip. Each family or tribe has a particular place of residence, and is distinguished by adding *gal* to the name of the place; thus the southern shore of Botany Bay is called *Givea*, and the tribe there *Givea-gal*. Another tribe, numerous and muscular, has the singular property of exacting a tooth from young men of other families, the sole token of government or subordination. No religion whatever is known, though they have a faint idea of a future existence, and think their people return to the clouds, whence they originally fell. They may be said to be exactly one degree above the brute creation, and, like monkeys, are great mimics. They are of a low stature and ill-made, the arms, legs, and thighs being remarkably thin, owing, perhaps, to their poor living on fish, the only food of those on the coast; while a few in the woods subsist on such animals as they can catch, and climb trees for honey, flying squirrels, and opossums. The features of the women are not unpleasant, though approaching to the negro. The black bushy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thrust through the cartilage of the nose, give them a disgusting appearance, which is not improved by the practice of rubbing fish-oil into their skins, as a protection from the air and mosquitos; so that, in hot weather, the stench is intolerable. They colour their faces with white or red clay. The women are marked by the amputation of the first two joints of the little finger on the left hand, which are supposed to obstruct the operation of coiling their fishing-lines. It is, however, not improbable that this practice, and the extraction of a tooth from the boys, may be mere initiations, rude lessons, that they may learn to bear pain with apathy. The children are seldom disfigured, except by accidents from fire; and their sight is prodigiously acute. Some are nearly as black as African negroes, while others exhibit a copper, or Malay colour; but the hair is long, not woolly. Their noses are flat, nostrils wide, sunk eyes, thick brows and lips, with mouths of excessive width; but the teeth white and even.

The huts are most rudely constructed of the bark of trees, in the form of an oven; the fire being at the entrance, while within are smoke and nastiness. Here they sleep promiscuously, if not interrupted by their frequent enmities and assassinations. Fish are killed with a kind of prong, or taken by the women, with
lines

lines of bark, and hooks of the mother-of-pearl oyster, rubbed on a stone till the proper form is obtained. The fish are often broiled on a fire laid on sand in the canoe. Beasts are taken in a kind of toils. Caterpillars and worms are likewise articles of food. The canoes are made of bark, extended on a timber frame.

The gallantry of these savages towards the fair sex Rousseau would doubtless have greatly admired. The courtship consists in watching the lady's retirement, and then knocking her down with repeated blows of a club, or wooden sword; after which the matrimonial victim is led, streaming with blood, to her future husband's party, when a scene ensues too shocking to relate. The woman thus ravished is called a wife; and polygamy is common. Both sexes are naked; and the girls first learned from the Europeans that there was such a thing as shame. Parturition is easy, and in a few hours after it, the mother walks about her usual business. The infant is, for a few days, placed on a piece of soft bark, but is soon removed to the mother's shoulders, where it sits with its little legs across her neck, securing itself by catching hold of her hair; it receives a name transferred from some bird, beast, or fish. The boys throw reeds and balls, and amuse themselves with stealing little girls, whom they beat and abuse, in imitation of the marriage ceremonies. The solemnity of paying the tribute of teeth, seems to be performed every four years, and is represented in many plates published by Colonel Collins, being a truly singular delineation of savage life. In some parts of this ceremony the form and character of man seemed despised, and the superiority of brutes acknowledged, by walking like quadrupeds, and the ambitious imitation of a tail. Power is, however, supposed to be conferred over the dog and the kangaroo, and the other parts seem an initiation in war and pain; but the whole is degrading to the dignity of human nature.

These poor savages are also slaves of superstition, believing in magic, and witchcraft, and ghosts, the latter being the nightmare; they have also spells against thunder and lightning, and pretend to foretell events by the meteors called falling stars. Their diseases are few: the list has been augmented by their commerce with Europeans. They have not only personal property in their weapons and fishing tackle, but some are supposed hereditary proprietors of certain spots, perhaps assigned as rewards for public services, or acts of great bravery. They have names for the sun and moon, some few stars, the Magellanic clouds, and the milky way. Young people are buried, but those who have passed the middle age are burnt, and commemorated by a rude tumulus.

Although a better acquaintance with the European settlers has mitigated their original hatred, yet these people, far from evincing the least inclination to adopt better systems, show an absolute abhorrence of social life. Some, indeed, mix with the inhabitants occasionally, to take their share in the labours and the rewards of those who toil. "Amongst these," says Mr. Mann, "there are five, in particular, to whom our countrymen have given the names of Bull Dog, Bidgy Bidgy, Bundell, Bloody Jack, and another, which I cannot recollect; but the last had a farm of four acres and upwards, planted with maize, at Hawkesbury, which he held by permission of Governor King; and the other four made themselves extremely useful on board colonial vessels employed in the fishing and sealing trade, for which they were in the regular receipt of wages. They strive, by every means in their power, to make themselves appear like the sailors with whom they associate, by copying their customs, and imitating their manners; such as swearing, using a great quantity of tobacco, drinking grog, and other similar habits. These natives are the only ones, I believe, who are inclined to industry; and they have, certainly, rendered essential services to themselves with assisting to draw nets for fish, for the purpose of coming in for a share of the produce of others toil."

CLIMATE. From the situation, on the southern side of the equator, the seasons are like those of the southern part of Africa and America, the reverse of those in Europe; the summer corresponding with our winter, and the spring with autumn. The weather in December is very hot, the rains are heavy, appearing to fall chiefly about the full and change of the moon; and, at intervals, there are storms of thunder and lightning. In Norfolk Island there is what may be called a rainy season, from February to August. As the south is, in this hemisphere, the region of cold, there must be great difference in the temperature in this wide continent, which may also be affected, as usual, by chains of mountains, and other circumstances yet undiscovered. Frost is known but little; at least, ice is very seldom seen; and snow has never yet appeared since the establishment of the colony: yet, on the highest ridges of the remoter mountains, snow is to be seen for a long time together. The climate is, upon the whole, singularly salubrious; no tendency to disease appears, except where brought on by intemperance. The purity and warmth of the atmosphere are particularly favourable to the growth of shrubs and plants, which flourish exceedingly, and attain to a degree of perfection and beauty unknown to the inhabitants of England. The woods and fields present a boundless variety of the choicest productions

productions of nature, which gratify the senses with their fragrance and magnificence; while the branches of the trees display a brilliant assemblage of the feathered race, whose plumage, "glittering in the sun," dazzles the eye of the beholder, with its unmatched loveliness and lustre.

BUILDINGS. The buildings are of stone, brick, and lath and plaster, weather boarded, and the houses are durable. There are two churches: one, St. Phillip's, which possesses a very handsome service of communion plate, presented by His Majesty, and received by the Calcutta, on the 8th of October, 1803; and the other, St. John's, at Paramatta. There are likewise a school and chapel at Hawkesbury, where divine service is performed. Two jails have also been erected in the colony. A house has been built for the governor at each of the principal settlements, which, also, possess several commodious barracks, with many other public buildings, and a great number of extensive and handsome houses, the property of private individuals. There are a stone bridge, and several substantial wooden ones, which, if not celebrated for beauty, are found extremely serviceable, and well calculated for all the present purposes of the colony, which is not yet sufficiently advanced in prosperity to prefer ornament to use. A new stone citadel is in a course of building, on which the royal standard, for the first time in these settlements, was hoisted on the 4th of June, 1803; and several batteries are erected.

Omitting the objects of natural history, and many other topics of great interest to the philosophical enquirer, the account of this infant colony, the latest, and one of the grandest acquisitions of the British crown, is concluded here. What, in the lapse of centuries, will be the destination of this portion of the globe, man would conjecture in vain; but, as the Blue Mountains have recently been traversed, and as it appears that the whole continent is eminently endowed with the means of rewarding industry with comfort and luxury, it is impossible to imagine that it will not, in process of time, be cultivated, built on, and replenished by a countless race of industrious and intelligent human beings. That they will speak the English language is a circumstance to which hope points with emotions of pride; that they will know, adopt, and value the beautiful institutes of the British constitution, and jurisprudence, is a cheering and gratifying prospect; and that they may ever be enlightened by the true and blessed doctrines of the holy gospel, and follow and inculcate them, according to the pure, pious, and rational forms of the established church of England, is a wish, a hope, a prayer which crowns all expectation, repays all cost, toil, and anxiety, and carries the speculations

of the politician to the highest point to which benevolence can aspire. Happy, indeed, and glorious may the present era be deemed, if, when New Holland shall be fully peopled, her historian may record, that the means of temporal good, and eternal welfare, have been derived to it from the parent island, the envied empire of Great Britain.

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THE END.





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